The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 13, 1895.

The Week.

THE silver convention held at Springfield, Ill., on Wednesday week is now called the Altgeld convention. The one which it is proposed to hold not later than August, of a national character, might well bear the same name if it should be held, but it will not be held under the auspices of the Democratic national committee. So Chairman Harrity says in a telegram published by the *World*. He says that he does not intend to call the committee together until the usual time, and that, in his opinion, a convention held in advance of the regular period would be harmful to business interests and prejudicial to the welfare of the Democratic party. Several other members of the national committee have communicated to the *World* their views, showing that there is not the least chance of holding such a convention under the auspices of the Democratic party. If it is held under any other auspices, it will merely signify the departure of the Populist Democrats to the place where they belong. They will join the party that supported Weaver for President in 1892. They can now nominate Bland, or Bryan, or Altgeld, but their following will be small. The rank and file of the party will support very wild measures and very wild men so long as they are branded Democratic, not when they wear a different name.

What tough work we have still before us in currency matters is well shown by an interview reported in the *Tribune* of Saturday with Capt. Howell, editor of the Atlanta *Constitution*, an influential paper printed in one of the leading commercial cities of the South. He says the South is "worked up" to an extraordinary degree in favor of silver, and he thinks the idea is not going to die out. He himself is in favor of "arranging a money system to suit ourselves, without recognizing foreign powers in the arrangement." Why is this? Why do we shut out foreign powers? The answer is easy. Because, "when we have a money system that is in conformity with that of all Europe and the rest of the world, whenever there is a panic in any place in the world, we feel the effect of it." "There is no use in denying," he adds, "that, during the period in the history of the country when silver was most largely used, from 1860 to 1875, was the most prosperous time we have ever known." His remedy for panics, you see, is quite simple, and we are glad he has come on with it so soon; but why did he not come sooner? He makes no provision in this scheme, however, for our foreign trade, amounting in all to about $2,000,000,000 annually. In what kind of currency should this be carried on? Or does the Captain propose to drop it wholly, and just let us sell these things to each other?

Capt. Howell's account of the currency of silver and accompanying prosperity between 1860 and 1875 satisfies us that 1860 was the year of his birth, and that his earliest financial ideas were derived from Uncle Remus. It has long been known that the South was short of collateral. In fact, one of the Southern financiers in Congress declared seven years ago that it was rather collateral than currency which the South needed. Capt. Howell admits this, and says that this is the cause of the high rate of interest at the South. The rate is now 10 or 12 per cent. Increase the currency, the Captain thinks, and down would go the rate. But why should one lend money to a man who has no collateral, at a low rate of interest, because there is an abundance of money in the country? The question with a money-lender must always be, not how much money there is per capita scattered around the State, but how much per capita the man has got who wants to borrow. "I have no collateral, Colonel, and want a loan mighty bad, but there is so much money in the country to-day I should not think you would need much security," is an address to a bank president which would, we have no doubt, make any bank in the South ring with laughter. It would be discouraging to find the editor of a leading newspaper in such an infantile state of mind regarding the principles of finance, if it did not prove that he was personally prosperous and never wanted a discount.

Postmaster-General Wilson delivered the commencement address at the University of Mississippi last week, and among other things said: "I long to see the South again in national leadership." Unfortunately it is only in very rare cases, like Mr. Wilson's, that the South for many years has contributed to the national councils men worthy to be followed throughout the country. The senatorships from that part of the country are largely filled by old fogies who do not even stick to what was good in their ante-bellum Democracy, but are given over to every sort of financial folly. The Southern vote in each branch of Congress was practically solid for the income tax, and both of the Southern Democrats on the Supreme bench voted to hold it constitutional. "Sound money" and "strict construction" have alike lost their hold upon Southern men, and they "wobble" around at the mercy of any gust of popular feeling. Until the South escapes from such a morass, the rest of the country will not be likely to accept its leadership in anything.

The Republicans are not to escape entirely the embarrassment of a decision on the silver question this summer. They have been enjoying the confusion into which the Democrats have been thrown by the "snap" convention in Illinois so much that they have overlooked the approaching convention of the National League of Republican Clubs at Cleveland. This convention will be attended by delegations from Colorado, Montana, and the other mining States which are bent upon securing the strongest sort of a silver declaration. Senator Dubois of Idaho says that it will be hardly worth while for the Republicans in his part of the country to go into a campaign next year unless the national convention declares for free coinage, and he proposes to tell this truth to the League of Republican Clubs, with the hope of securing something from them. It is, of course, impossible that the silverites should have their way in the Cleveland convention, but there is some danger that their threats may lead to the adoption of a compromising deliverance. At any rate, there is at present enough to occupy Republicans in "bracing up" the delegations from the sound-money States.

Since the spring season began, the price of wheat has advanced 25 to 30 cents per bushel. It is generally agreed that the speculators had the chief hand in this advance, and that, in fact, the recovery has been largely due to reviving confidence in the stability of our currency. For capital may be invested in grain as well as in stocks, a leading motive in both cases being the confidence that if the grain itself, or the contract for its future delivery, be laid aside for a month or two, it may be resold then at higher prices. We wish to call attention to one phenomenon connected with this movement. Not a breath has been heard, during at least four months, from the advocates of the "anti-option" law. Yet nobody can have forgotten the urgent plea of these philanthropists a year or two ago. Speculation in grain and cotton "futures," we were then informed, must be prohibited by law, unless the farmer is to be absolutely ruined. Why? Because speculators always force lower prices, make an artificial market, and cut the ground from under the farmers' feet. And certainly the successful produce speculators did sell during at least two years, and prices did fall. But here, all at once, is half the floating capital of Chicago and New York scrambling to bid up and accumulate grain contracts, with equally strong speculators bidding up and accumulating cotton. Still more wonderful, the men who are selling "fu-

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tures" and checking the market's upward movement are the farmers with plenty of growing wheat and cotton.

Platt's address to the Republicans of this State is an ingenuous and engaging appeal to them to look upon him as the only genuine reformer that they have among them at present. The wicked newspapers have lied so about him and his late Legislature that he finds it necessary to take the people into his confidence, and, with the assistance of the truthful and virtuous Charley Hackett, tell them the exact facts in the case. This is what he says in the address. What he said to Charley in private probably was: "These confounded Mugwumps and anti-Platt Republicans have been telling the people such ugly things about our doings at Albany that we must lie a little to set the public mind right in the matter, or there will be disaster at the polls in November." So the two composed the address, and it is a powerful document. We have space only for a single one of its more obtrusive falsehoods. Speaking of the new ballot law, Platt and Hackett call attention to "the amendments to the corrupt-practices act extending its provisions to party primaries and conventions," but make no mention of the fact that every attempt to amend that act in such a way as to stop the corrupt use of money in nominations and elections was fairly hooted down in the Assembly. The amendments cited by them are perfectly useless, or they would never have been permitted to pass.

Mr. Elihu Root's opinion on the "constitutional point" raised by Mr. Aldridge, State Superintendent of Public Works, leaves so little of the point that even Aldridge and his "owner," Platt, must see that it would be a sheer waste of money to go into court upon it. There is nothing for Aldridge to do now except to obey the law and have all the places in his department filled in accordance with civil-service regulations. Undoubtedly had he thought that he would be obliged to administer the office in this way, he would never have accepted it. He went into it as a spoilsman, hoping to use it as a machine for the benefit of Platt politics. When the Governor consented to appoint him, in spite of the protests of reformers, Aldridge jumped to the conclusion that the Governor would stand by him through thick and thin, that he shared his own contempt for reformers, and would uphold him in all his plans for "working the office for all it was worth." He did not suspect for a moment that the Governor, after appointing so notorious a spoilsman to office, would be so hard-hearted as to remove all the spoils of the office from his control. He accordingly snapped his fingers at the law, tried in one way and another to bulldoze or cajole the Civil-Service Commission, got bills through the Legislature enormously increasing the patronage of the office, and awaited in confidence the cordial support of the Governor for his course. To his astonishment, the Governor took sides with the reformers by vetoing his patronage bills, and joined with the Civil-Service Commission in compelling him to obey the civil-service law. What is left for Aldridge now? Nothing but cursing and communion with Platt.

The interesting announcement is made that Prof. Collin, who acted as "legal adviser" for Governors Hill and Flower, has resigned from the Law Department of Cornell University and has opened a law office in this city in partnership with Blue-Eyed Billy Sheehan, late of Buffalo, under the firm name of Sheehan & Collin. It is added that Sheehan is a Democrat and Collin is a Republican, but by whatever name they call their politics, they have long dealt in the same kind of law. While Hill was Governor and was fighting ballot reform, Collin supplied him with the kind of "law" he wanted in order to base his opposition on "constitutional grounds." When Flower was Governor and wanted to veto the appropriation for the Lexow investigation, Collin furnished him with the "law" for that action. Later, when Flower wished to deny the right of the present Legislature to meet under the new Constitution, Collin gave him a lot of "law" for so doing, and came in person to this city with it, reading it with much pride to an assemblage of our leading lawyers, but disowning it when he saw what extremely short work they made of it. He and Sheehan have worked together harmoniously in political law for many years, and they may work with equal harmony in private law, but they will not be able to back up their views with the power of the State Government. We congratulate Cornell University on getting rid of Collin. Whatever else may be said of his kind of law, it is clearly not a kind which should be infused into the minds of ingenuous youth.

The late Pennsylvania Legislature was one of the worst the State has had for many years. It became notorious for the openness with which it waited for the orders of Boss Quay before taking action on any measure of importance, and the obsequiousness with which it obeyed those orders. Public sentiment was repeatedly set at defiance in the most flagrant manner, and both the boss and his tools seemed to exult in opposing public feeling. Even measures which had no partisanship about them, like the bill for the retirement of judges upon a pension at seventy, could make no headway if Quay for any reason came out against them. As a means of showing his power, apparently, the boss had Quay County established. The only wonder is that he did not change the name of the Legislature to agree with the facts. There is at present great indignation against Quay among Republicans. But we doubt if it worries him much. The indignation will not hurt him unless it can be kept alive and potent till members of the next Legislature are to be nominated. That will be a year hence, and before that time the probability is that most of the present "kickers" will have forgotten all about it, and Quay will run the caucuses as usual.

The most surprising feature of the session of the Massachusetts Legislature which has just adjourned was the development of Gov. Greenhalge as a man of independence and force. We do not recall any other case precisely like it. There have been plenty of instances where men who had no previous political record have shown unexpected firmness in executive positions. But Greenhalge had been long in politics, he had been a member of Congress, and he had served as Governor one year without ever varying from the lines of the strictest partisanship. Indeed, he used to sneer at Mugwumps for their alleged assumption of superiority, and would have resented the notion that a Governor should set himself up as knowing more than a Legislature which his party controlled. Yet during the session just closed he vetoed no fewer than sixteen bills, among them several of great public and partisan interest. Beginning with a refusal of his approval to the first bill that reached him proposing an increase of salary, on the broad ground that this is no time for such measures, he blocked a great number of grabs which their promoters had expected to log-roll through. By his vetoes of the Woburn and Holyoke State police-commission bills, he checked the dangerous tendency towards centralization and the decline of local spirit. Finally, by his message returning without his approval the soldiers'-exemption bill, he did his best to save the civil-service system and the reputation of the veteran from the harm which a combination of the spoilsmen and the Grand Army machine was bent upon inflicting.

Judge Holmes of the Supreme Court of Massachusetts has given a decision on the question of the right of strikers to exert "persuasion, advice, and social pressure" to prevent men taking their places, which will excite a good deal of comment. He admits that "it is well settled that deliberately and in combination to interfere with a man's business to his pecuniary damage, by persuading others to have nothing to do with him, is actionable (Walker vs. Cronin, 107 Mass. 555)." But he holds that this applies only to interference for pure mischief or for harm's sake. Interference for a good purpose, such as to compel a man to accept the strikers' schedule of wages, would be justi-

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fiable, in his opinion, though he admits that "the weight of judicial opinion is the other way." The trouble with this decision is that it recognizes the doctrine out of which all that is mischievous in strikes arises, and which, pushed to extremes, would be destructive of industrial freedom. We mean the doctrine that persons who have once been employed by a particular man or corporation have the right to remain in the service as long as they please on their own terms, and to employ any means short of violence to attain this end. It is only on the theory that they have a vested interest in the places they have left, that strikers are morally or legally justified in trying to prevent other men from filling them by either "persuasion, advice, or social pressure," or patrolling.

If we applied this doctrine to any other contract—the hiring of a house, for instance, or the employment of a domestic servant—its absurdity would become at once apparent. If a tenant whose offer of rent had been rejected by the landlord were to collect a crowd in front of the house to dissuade other tenants from renting it, or if a butler were to distribute handbills denouncing his late employer's service, and organize patrols to keep would-be successors away, everybody would cry shame, and the police would interfere. But a factory-owner, whose credit, and maybe his bread, are dependent on his success in managing his business in his own way, would find, under Judge Holmes's decision, that he had entered into a compulsory partnership with a number of men whom he disliked and wished to be rid of, but who had the power of fixing his "schedules of wages." Moreover, Judge Holmes appears, in defining intimidation, to overlook the state of mind of the persons intimidated. A course of conduct which frightens people and limits their freedom of control through fear, whether it consists in hooting, jeering, threatening, or "persuading" with a big stick, is surely, or ought to be, unlawful, whatever the motives of those pursuing it. Any agency which prevents me from doing what I should like to do, and could do legally, is an abridgment of my freedom.

Many of the Southern States of late years have held their State elections at some other period of the year than the time for choosing members of Congress and Presidential electors. This system was adopted in order to secure immunity from the federal election laws, the national authorities having no right to interfere with any election in which no national official was chosen. Now that these laws have been repealed, the States will doubtless consolidate their elections, thus saving a very considerable expense. Florida takes the lead. The Constitution makes the State election now come in October. The Legislature has submitted to the people an amendment, which will doubtless be ratified, changing the time to the day of the election of federal officials in November.

Much of the Cuban war news with which we are favored from day to day is open to the suspicion implied in the old Spanish proverb, *Luengas vias, luengas mentiras*—lies are whoppers in proportion to the distance from which they come. Still, there seems little doubt that expeditionary forces from this country are landing from time to time in Cuba, though doubtless not in such overwhelming numbers and possessed of such overwhelming valor as the correspondents would have us believe. This is a business upon which our State Department should keep a watchful eye. A country that has taken such high ground on the duty of neutrals, and made England smart for negligence, cannot afford to be negligent itself. Of course, it is difficult, if not impossible, the nearness of Cuba to the Florida coast being considered, to prevent straggling filibusters from slipping across. Nor can the sale of munitions of war be prevented. But anything like a regularly organized force, especially anything like a ship fitted out for fighting, should not be allowed to get away from her shores by a nation that has made the *Alabama* case a precedent in international law. We know of no complaints that the Spanish Government has made on this score, nor of any cause for such complaints. The reason for putting a lawyer like Mr. Olney at the head of the State Department is that all these questions should be treated dispassionately as matters of law, not of sentiment. We have no doubt that our obligations towards the friendly government of Spain will be as scrupulously discharged by Secretary Olney as they were by the late Mr. Gresham.

Meanwhile, there can be little doubt that the rebellion, far from being almost put down, is spreading and becoming more formidable. Capt.-Gen. Campos has had to call for more troops and money. He is finding his task almost as difficult as Lord Howe found his in this country, and not altogether dissimilar. The insurgents cannot stand against regular soldiers, but in that very fact lies the mischief. The rebels will not be caught in the open for a pitched battle, to put their fortunes to the touch at one stroke, but run off into the interior fastnesses, whence they emerge in sporadic bands of guerillas to tire the Spaniards out with marching up and down to overtake an ever-fleeing enemy. Every week that passes makes them surer of themselves and more audacious, while all the time they are drilling and organizing and getting better fitted to meet the troops of the line on equal terms. It was these tactics that drew out the former rebellion through ten years, and they seem now to be in successful operation again. The outlook is a gloomy one for both Spain and Cuba. Spain is ready to spend her last dollar to retain the island, but her last dollar is nearly enough in sight to make any great prolongation of the contest equivalent to bankruptcy. The "ever-faithful isle," meantime, is ravaged, its industries flattened to the earth, and the best prospect before it is that of a huge debt and crushing taxation, whether the rebels win or lose.

At the Lord Mayor's banquet on May 22, Sir William Harcourt made some sensible observations on the passion for piling up public expenditure. He justly said that it had now become "an international epidemic." In all countries which have a public finance at all, finance ministers have to struggle desperately to make both ends meet, if they are at the mercy of the Legislature, or, if they are in a responsible government, have to refuse mercilessly a whole line of appropriations asked for by the representatives of the people. Of all things in the world, as Sir William said, the easiest to invent is some fresh mode of expenditure, and everybody will vote for it with enthusiasm. Concurrently, however, the hardest thing to invent is a new tax against which everybody will not vote with high and stern indignation. The case was well put by a French minister the other day, when he affirmed that "no finances in the world can bear the strain of a policy at once military, naval, colonial, and philanthropic." The combination is indeed formidable, and here, too, the greatest of these is charity. We can support an army and navy, we can pay for the ordinary business of government, but when it comes to voting every man a competence, to making a bad business a good one, to bolstering up prices and giving every man a good profit and plenty of cheap money—above all, when it comes to insuring every worker employment at high wages and short hours—then the bottom of the inexhaustible public treasury is reached in a twinkling. Philanthropic public finance is only another way of saying public bankruptcy.

That so many inexhaustible public treasuries are already exhausted is a disagreeable surprise to Socialists, tacit or avowed, and excites them to anger. Our eloquent old friend M. Jaurès was tremendously outraged in the French Chamber the other day when the Finance Minister opposed some of his schemes to promote popular virtue and happiness by means of public appropriations. The Minister coldly said that there was no money in the treasury, but M. Jaurès passionately asked what of that, and threateningly wanted to know if he was going to oppose "the law of democratic evolution." That this law is to drain the treasury there can be little doubt, but some other law has got to be devised to fill it up again, and toward such a law democracy does not seem to evolve,

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"SAFE AND PROPER BIMETALLISM."

THE change in Mr. W. C. Whitney's views about money, as announced in the press on Monday, is extremely gratifying. His first deliverance on his arrival here ten days ago was intensely bimetallic, and it was bimetallic, too, not offhand, or at first blush, but after "having given a great deal of attention to the subject." But he was not for lonely bimetallism, or for bimetallism by divine ordinance, or for bimetallism as "justice to silver." He was for "international bimetallism," or a "safe and proper bimetallism," created by "the co-operation of other nations and commercial peoples." When were we to have this? "Within two or three years" sure. "Germany has declared in favor of it; England will soon follow." The "strongest and most enlightened English statesmen," including the "brainy Balfour," are "in favor of it." Those who remember that the first attempts at international bimetallism through "conference" began seventeen years ago, and that the safe and proper bimetallists were then far more confident of the coöperation of England than they are now, have smiled over these earlier convictions of Mr. Whitney. We are not surprised that a little greater familiarity with the subject has apparently caused him to abandon or greatly modify them. He is now for "sound money." Not a word does he say about bimetallism of any description. "If the silver-men should carry the next Democratic convention, it would split the party in two." And he adds:

> "You see, prominent men all through the West have been preaching for the past fifteen years that the free coinage of silver was all that was necessary to make things boom. They have maintained that by establishing a ratio between the two metals of 15½ or 16 to 1, this country could solve the financial problem for the entire world, and that other nations would have to follow. These people have become so thoroughly saturated with this kind of talk that it will take some time and much work to counteract its influence. There are a good many sound-money men in the West and South; and the Memphis convention, I think, has helped the cause along.
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> "We had this same experience in another form after the panic of '73, when greenbacks were regarded as a panacea for all the ills of the country, and that spread throughout the whole country, and both parties were obliged to take some sort of a stand on the matter, but finally the good sense of the people asserted itself, and we haven't heard much of greenbackism since. I think the people will eventually treat this question just the same as they did the greenback question. They want sound money now just as much as they did then."

This is common sense, and it is the opinion of New York. Mr. Whitney's bimetallic gospel is as much out of place here to-day as abolitionism would have been at the South before the war. Proper or improper, people will have none of it, and they are prepared to be as "unjust to silver" as may be necessary to take care of their credit and their business.

We will now make a few plain statements about this international balderdash. Sir William Harcourt stated boldly the other day, what every man of sense knows to be true, that neither the present Government nor any Government that may come after in England will ever give the smallest countenance to any attempt to displace the gold sovereign from its present position as the national standard of value. Mr. Chamberlain is as emphatic on this point as Harcourt. There is not a man in the party who does not know well that the Conservatives dare not go to the polls with any silver or bimetallic nonsense in their heads. Asking the great English business world to change its standard of value on the demand of a lot of foreign bullion speculators, is like asking them to give up India or the Rock of Gibraltar. Mr. Balfour is dabbling in the idea, but Mr. Balfour is not a business man, nor an economist, nor a man known in any sense in the world of finance. He is an acute dialectician in the metaphysical field, but he has no more head for questions of currency or finance than some very able men have for mathematics. We doubt if a single English business man of weight, even of the bimetallic persuasion, pays much attention to what he says on this topic. The rock on which the huge superstructure of English commerce—the greatest the world has ever seen—rests is stability, stability of currency, stability of taxes, stability of policy. Consequently the idea of trying experiments in currency in combination with foreigners has never taken strong hold of the national mind. Were it put seriously to a representative body of Englishmen whether they would go into partnership with Russia, Spain, Portugal, Italy, Greece, Mexico, Ecuador, and the rest of the financial ragtag and bobtail, in trying to create, without any necessity of their own, an artificial standard of value, we believe the author of the proposal would have to run like a "welsher" on the Epsom Downs. In truth, the idea is so preposterous to any one familiar with the tone of English thought on this class of questions that the expectation of any support from England for the bimetallic craze, we make bold to say, discredits the intelligence of any man who holds it. Were the Conservatives to go to the country with any such scheme, the Liberals would come back to power, with Harcourt at their head, with a very great majority, which would last as long as the bimetallic craze made itself visible in politics.

The secret of the queer tales about the progress of bimetallism in England which travellers like Mr. Whitney bring back, is that of late years they see a great deal of the impoverished landholding class, who, like the "debtor class" everywhere, are in favor of anything that will raise prices. "Cheap money" is money in which mortgages could be paid off, in which grain would rule high, and rents come back to their own level, and settlements be made easy. The same class fondled the protective idea for nearly a whole generation after the rest of the nation had buried it. When, therefore, they get hold of a wandering American, they fill him full of bimetallism, and he comes back and tells us the game is up, and that silver is going to be redeemed. It was they who threatened us so long with "fair trade," meaning some kind of return to duties on food, but the British business world has no more notion of allowing the pound sterling to be tampered with than of putting ten shillings a quarter on wheat. And we may depend upon it, when the work of raising values by international agreement is once begun, it will not stop at silver. Everything will be raised by treaty, and nobody will ever see another poor day.

MEDIÆVAL METHODS.

IN the recent legislation which gives the veterans of our thirty years (ago) war priority over all other male citizens of Massachusetts in the strife for office, the great and General Court of that progressive commonwealth has reverted to mediæval methods in an astonishing manner. A thousand years or so ago, any subject of King Rodolph or King Edred, who was charged with invading his neighbors' rights by force or fraud, might clear himself by taking a solemn oath that he did no such thing; and he was then expected to produce as many friends as possible, who attended him to court and gave affirmative testimony that he never did it. If friends were not forthcoming, he had to fall back on the Almighty, who would maintain his servant's innocence in two ways, by the combat or by the ordeal, such as walking barefoot over hot ploughshares, a method never resorted to except by such as were short of devoted friends. These ways of testifying to one's probity or good conduct have been thought barbarous and obsolete. But the Massachusetts Legislature virtually revives them.

There is in this country a tremendous pressure for Government appointments. The good things of the public are sought for eagerly, passionately, rapaciously, by a crowd of office-seekers, who have as a class acquired a very bad repute and are greatly distrusted. In order to wipe out this reproach, the very worst of the crew, on whom the long-suffering public has long had its eye as plunderers and defrauders, have always been able to produce an army of backers, devoted comrades, the true mediæval compurgators, ready to make affidavit that Jake or Barney was one of our best citizens. But the suspicious public at last "got the snuff into its nose," as the Neapolitan says, and determined to put the office-seeker through an ordeal by making him walk the hot ploughshares of an examination, believing that they would prove cold and harmless to one whose character and training fitted him for the work. But your Massachusetts veteran has no intention of thus establishing his fitness by the judgment of heaven, demonstrated in his own person. He much pre-

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fers to take solemn oath that he is no rapacious office-seeker, that he is really competent, and to bring two friends, true feudal compurgators, to assert (not swear; *he* takes all the oaths required) that they believe him to be exactly the man for the place. No ordeal for him; compurgation, if you please. And why not the third plan? Why not the combat? Certainly; that he went through thirty years ago—as if Front de Boeuf, accused of roasting Isaac of York in 1194, should swear he helped the Christians in Palestine about 1160. This is mediævalism made easy. In fact, there is a more recent precedent. Readers of Sir Walter Scott will remember one Sir William Scott of Deloraine, whose habit it was, like others of his clan, notably the poet's own ancestor, to make incursions into England, drive off cattle by the score, burn down any buildings inconveniently situated for his purpose, and kill any Cumbrians who foolishly resisted. For these amiable traits the warden marched an army into Teviotdale, and said to Lady Buccleuch:

> "We claim from thee William of Deloraine,
> That he may suffer march-treason pain,"

and then recapitulated the above exploits. Her reply, thoroughly approved by all the clan Scott, was that

> "—either William of Deloraine
> Will cleanse him by oath of march-treason stain;
> Or else he will the combat take
> 'Gainst Musgrave for his honor's sake."

And so he did, and, by sending Richard Musgrave after his brother, proved that he had never raided his estate at all.

There has been an organized raid upon the Treasury and public service of the Union and the States. The noblest principles of our institutions, the noblest heroes of our history, have had their sacred names abused to provide greedy and incompetent men with positions which belong by every right to such, and such only, as are proved to be fit for them. The ancient commonwealth of Massachusetts has taken the lead in establishing such a method of proof; she encourages every citizen to pass an ordeal, strict but honorable and useful, before he shall be appointed to her offices. In the administration of this system she has been most generous and thoughtful to the soldiers of the civil war; and now her Legislature, which has ruled her continuously for over 250 years, allows any one of a would-be military aristocracy, exactly like the moss-troopers of Branksome and Lochmaben, to swear themselves into any employment they fancy—"cleanse them by oath of march-treason stain." If told that that is no true evidence of competency, even when backed by admiring and complacent friends, if told that the old system of appointment by self-assertion and endorsement has been abolished, they will resort to the ordeal by battle, "the combat for their honor's sake"—only it must be a combat of thirty years ago. Truly, American institutions are getting strangely modified, and the stars and stripes assuming the character of a border baron's bearings.

THE GAINS OF THE NEW YORK ELECTION.

THE names of the new city magistrates have been announced, and the selections are eminently satisfactory, so that we shall by July 1 have a police bench worthy of our civilization. This puts us in a position, for the first time, to make a deliberate examination of the gains of the reform movement, and it must be confessed that, in spite of the efforts of the Legislature to minimize them, in spite of the failure of several important bills, the position of the city has been greatly improved. It will be remembered that the three grossest abuses of the Tammany régime were the police bench, the police, and the street-cleaning. Through the police justices, and the police acting in concert with them, "the organization" was able to exercise almost despotic rule over the poorer classes. These classes really held their liberty and property at the mercy of the police justice and the captain of the precinct, and paid taxes to them above and beyond those legally due to the city and the State. The criminals and law-breakers, particularly, paid heavily for liberty to pursue their several vocations, and at Presidential elections the Democratic party was compelled to purchase the aid of large hordes of jail-birds with honors and rewards originally meant for respectable citizens. In fact, government by "pull" almost completely supplanted the government of the laws in one of the leading cities of Christendom. There was little more trace of Western jurisprudence in the lower walks of New York life than in Damascus or Jiddah.

Now this has been changed—we will not say permanently changed, because, with regard to the police, we have not yet secured the legislation necessary for permanence; but the police bench has been cleared of the unspeakables who have, we will not say sat upon it, but infested it. The poor will hereafter get justice and law from respectable men. The poor foreigners in particular will get new ideas of American morality and law. The "pantata" will vanish from the list of American functionaries. We do not believe any church has returned thanks during the last ten years for a greater blessing, or one more important to the moral and social life of the city.

The failure to secure the reforms in the police organization which the Lexow committee's investigation pointed out as necessary, was a bitter disappointment. The Mayor's acceptance of the bipartisan bill was a heavy blow and great discouragement, but mainly, let us say, because it excited apprehension of future indifference on his part to the opinions of those who elected him, and because it was likely to encourage Tammany and the Plattites in their resistance to all reform. But it is often, and not unnaturally, forgotten that nearly all the changes in the police organization which we fought for and hoped to secure, were suggested by the public belief that the Police Commissioners would generally be rascals. It is only on this theory that the reformers proposed to take away from them the selection of their own men. In no police force in the world is this privilege denied them. Many other provisions of our reformatory police legislation are intended in like manner to guard against the possibility of a succession of corrupt Commissioners. But we have got from Mayor Strong a Police Commission which commands public confidence, which is apparently bent on purifying the force, and which may be relied on to administer it with a single eye to the public interest. The defeat of the reformatory legislation is, accordingly, for the moment not a serious calamity. We have got everything, or nearly everything, it would have given us except security as to the remoter future.

The street-cleaning reform has been so much discussed of late that we need say but little about its political aspects. But of its social and sanitary and moral aspects too much cannot be said. It is, in fact, as regards the moral elevation of the poor of the city, the complement of the reform of the police bench. Such justices as Paddy Divver and Tom Grady were the natural rulers of a population which dwelt in Tom Brennan's filth, and whose streets were nightly filled with the wagons of lewdness and theft. Churches and schools would labor in vain among people whose physical surroundings were so odious. In securing the services of a man like Waring, who cared nothing for "pulls," and was capable of cleaning the streets in the manner prescribed by law, Mayor Strong has, therefore, conferred on us an inestimable boon. We do not believe the educating influence on the masses of a pure bench and clean streets during the next three years can be overrated. Having seen good city government even for three years, people will not accept any other. So that, for the first time in our recollection, we think it may be safely said that those who go off to the seaside or the mountains may do so in confidence that no ground will be lost during the season in which so much enthusiasm has hitherto died out, and so many high hopes have come to naught.

THE NOVELIST ON HIS TRAVELS.

THE English press has shown a great deal of eagerness to get Daudet's opinions of London, since his recent visit to that city. All his interviews in the French papers relating to his experiences and impressions across the Channel have been promptly telegraphed to England, reproduced at full length, and made the subject of much wise comment. Daudet was greatly struck by "the silence of London"—which was his rather neat

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way of saying that the roar of the city was so great and continuous that nobody tried to talk, and that business was transacted, so far as possible, by dumb show. He was also delighted to meet Dickens's characters in the flesh. On every hand he recognized them—the Cheeryble Brothers doing their famous benevolent act, as the variety programmes say, Uriah Heep writhing with suppressed villany, and so on. This naturally brought great joy to many hearts in England that had grieved over the irreverent charge that Dickens was a caricaturist, and that his personages never were, on sea or land. If a famous and keen-eyed Frenchman saw them on every London street-corner, the scoffers had better hold their peace.

The exaggerated importance attached to these impressions of a hurried traveller, who happened to be a noted writer of fiction, is characteristic of a journalistic and gossip-loving age. We have come insensibly to believe that a man famous for any kind of achievement must have valuable opinions on all classes of subjects. Hence the habit of reporters of gravely knocking up at midnight all sorts of specialists to ask them what they think about something they know nothing of whatever. If he is a specialist, that is enough; his opinion about anything must be of special importance. If he is a great writer, whose works about the things he knows are read by thousands, then thousands must be anxious to read his views on things of which he is profoundly ignorant.

But there seems to be an additional and particular reason why famous novelists have become the especial prey of the interviewer. This is the age of realistic fiction. Its masters excel in minute and accurate observation, and who then so likely as they to seize and state exactly the salient and typical facts of any country or civilization, however alien to them? On no other theory can we account for all the interest taken in Daudet's ideas of London, Bourget's impressions of America, and Zola's account of Rome. At last the mirror was to be held up. At last the trained and analytical eye of the realistic novelist was to see what the foreign philosopher had missed, what the statesman on his travels had overlooked, and what, it must be said to be too often the case, the most intelligent natives had never dreamed of.

If the results have not come up to expectations, it is only what might have been expected, only what a closer eye on the nature and methods of realistic fiction should have prepared one to anticipate. The greatest triumphs of realism have to do with mere externals. You verify those, and then you think that all the other details are equally literal transcripts of the truth. The novelist tells you that his hero stepped moodily upon the Third Avenue cable cars at Twenty-third Street and got off with a relieved air at the Post-Office, and when you come upon such life-like bits, so manifestly capable of verification, you are at once ready to believe all that the author tells you of the secret springs of action and the inevitable development of character. But it does not take a very wide experience of either novels or life to teach one that the internal does not always correspond to the external; that it is much easier to make mistakes about. Yet it is only the most external of external things that the foreign observer can see in his rapid flight, and the most his friends can hope for is that he may not make too many unconscionable blunders even about those.

Some recent tests of realistic fiction are a little discouraging to the devotees of that cult. A French abbé, M. Paul Lallemand, has lately published a little study on "The Priest in the Modern Novel." He examines one figure after another among the priests to be found in the most famous and most realistic novels, only to have to wonder again and again at "such ignorance and misunderstanding of the priestly life." To Feuillet and Bourget he gives qualified praise for their priestly personages, but Coppée and Halévy and Duruy excite his ridicule, while of Zola he says that he may succeed in the not very formidable task of describing a priest's dress and gait, but that "the heart of a priest is a sealed book to him." The realism of Mr. James Whitcomb Riley has in a like manner been brought into grave doubt. His Indiana dialect is vouched for by Mr. Howells as accurate beyond compare, but Mr. Maurice Thompson, who is himself a Hoosier, says that it is all an ideal thing of Riley's own fancy, having no resemblance to anything in the heaven above or on the earth beneath of actual Indiana.

All things considered, we doubt if the travelling novelist will just yet wrest the crown from Arthur Young, De Tocqueville, or Mr. Bryce. Their methods are plodding and uninspired, but somehow they do the business. The first-named "wise and honest traveller," as John Morley calls him, spoke lightly of those books on Europe which had been written by observers "whirled along in post-chaises." What would he have thought of our modern cannon-ball-express travellers, producing books as fast as they ride? For Young, three years on horseback and on foot in every corner of France was not too much time to spend in preparing to write of French agriculture. De Tocqueville explored our penitentiaries and prisons for two years before thinking of putting pen to paper. Mr. Bryce has doubtless been in labors more abundant than either. In rapidity, in inspiration, in *réclame*, the travelling novelist far outstrips any of them; yet Arthur Young's book has been a classic in France for more than a hundred years, while De Tocqueville and Bryce will be read in America as long as anything is read.

PINCKNEY'S DRAFT OF A CONSTITUTION.

BROOKLYN, June 10, 1895.

THE references in the briefs of both sides in the income-tax argument to Charles Pinckney's draft of a Constitution, as well as the evident authority given that document in the decision read by Chief-Justice Fuller, only accentuate the importance of preventing, if possible, its further use as historical or legal evidence. As early as 1836 Madison called attention to the fact that the paper was an evident fabrication, yet constitutional writers have continued to quote it with a persistency and frequency most extraordinary.

The history of this paper begins with May 29, 1787, on which day the *Journal* records Pinckney as submitting it to the Convention in a speech, and its reference to a committee. That is the first and last mention of it in the official proceedings of the Convention, and, for some unexplained reason, neither Madison, Yates, nor King gave the slightest abstract of the plan or speech, nor recorded any subsequent mention of the plan in their notes of the debates. Indeed, so little attention was paid to it that a copy was not even retained among the papers of the Convention, and, in consequence of this, when John Quincy Adams edited the *Journal* of the Convention in 1818, he applied to Pinckney for a copy of the paper, and received from him an outline of a Constitution, which he printed without question, and which has since masqueraded as the one Pinckney submitted to the Convention. Fortunately, the same vanity which induced Pinckney to foist a false plan on the public, in the hope of thereby proving that much of the Federal Constitution was derived from him, had in 1787 led him to print privately the speech he made in introducing his plan of government, and by comparing this speech of 1787 with the pseudo-draft of 1818 we learn how much credibility is to be given to the latter.

The speech indicates that Pinckney proposed a division into legislative, executive, and judicial, as in the draft. In the election of the legislative, however, which was to be proportioned to population, we at once find a striking contradiction. In the draft the lower house was to be chosen "every —— year by the people." In the speech he states that it was to be chosen for four years, and, singularly enough, makes no mention of how it was to be elected, but from a contemporary letter we can draw an inference, for in 1789 Pinckney wrote: "Are you not, to use a full expression, abundantly convinced that the theoretical nonsense of an election of the members of Congress by the people in the first instance is clearly and practically wrong, . . . and that the Legislatures are the only proper judges of who ought to be elected?" The Senate was to be elected by the lower house "upon proportional principles . . . which, though rotative, will give that body a sufficient degree of stability and independence. The districts into which the Union are to be divided will be so apportioned as to give each its due weight, and the Senate calculated in this, as it ought to be in every Government, to represent the wealth of the nation." To these two branches Pinckney added what he terms "a council of revision, consisting of their executive and principal officers of government," and further on in the speech, in defining the duties of the executive, he somewhat elaborates his idea by adding that the President "will have a right to consider the principals of each Department"

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("Home, Foreign, War, Treasury, and Admiralty") "as his council, and to require their advice and assistance whenever the duties of his office shall render it necessary. By this means our Government will possess what it has always wanted but never yet had, a cabinet council." The draft contains not a word concerning this council, which, so far as I know, is the first suggestion of the body unrecognized by the Constitution, but since so familiar a feature of our Government.

To follow the sequence of the speech, in preference to the draft, Pinckney elected the President septennially, without limit upon his reëligibility, adding, "I shall have no objection to elect him for a longer term," while the draft sets no term of office. He was to be removable by impeachment, but by what power is not mentioned, thus again departing from the draft, in which impeachment was to be instituted by the lower house and adjudicated by the Supreme Court. As another variation from the draft, no provision is made for a substitute in case of the death of the President. Apparently he was given no power of appointment, and, more curious still, there is nothing to show by whom he was elective, though a reference to his similarity to the President of Congress suggests that he was to be named, as was that officer, by Congress.

The fourth article, as summarized in the speech, gave to the national Government alone the right of granting citizenship, and decreed the delivery of fugitives from justice "exactly upon the principles of the fourth article of the present Confederation," except that the demand of the executive of a State for "any fugitive, criminal offender shall be complied with," thus extending this clause to cover fugitive slaves. The fifth article, Pinckney tells us, was "founded on the same principles as the sixth of the Confederation," and the absolute difference of these two clauses from the clauses in the pseudo-draft indicates how entirely different they are not merely in principle, but in construction.

But the most extraordinary and radical difference occurs in the next or sixth article. In the words of the speech, this was "intended to give the United States in Congress not only a revision of the Legislative acts of each State, but a negative upon all such as shall appear to them improper." In favor of this clause Pinckney said:

"I apprehend the true intention of the States in uniting is to have a firm national Government, capable of effectually executing its acts and dispensing its benefits and protection. In it alone can be vested those powers and prerogatives which more particularly distinguish a sovereign State. The members which compose the superintending Government are to be considered merely as parts of a great whole, and only suffered to retain the powers necessary to the administration of their State Systems. The idea which has been so long and falsely entertained of each being a sovereign State must be given up; for it is absurd to suppose there can be more than one sovereignty within a Government. The States should retain nothing more than that mere local legislation which, as districts of a general Government, they can exercise more to the benefit of their particular inhabitants than if it was vested in the Supreme Council; but in every foreign concern, as well as in those internal regulations which, respecting the whole, ought to be uniform and national, the States must not be suffered to interfere. No act of the Federal Government in pursuance of its constitutional powers ought by any means to be within the control of the State legislatures; if it is, experience warrants me in asserting, they will assuredly interfere and defeat its operation. . . . Whatever views we may have of the importance or retained sovereignty of the States, be assured they are visionary and unfounded, and that their true interests consist in concentering, as much as possible, the force and resources of the union in one superintending Government, where alone they can be exercised with effect. . . . If it was possible completely to draw the distinguishing line, so as to reserve to the States the legislative rights they ought to retain, and prevent their exceeding them, I should not object, but it will be found exceedingly difficult; for, as I have already observed, leave them only a right to pass an act, without revision or control, and they will certainly abuse it. The only mode I can think of, for qualifying it, is to vest a power somewhere, in each State, capable of giving their acts a limited operation, until the sense of Congress can be known."

The seventh article proposed "to invest a number of exclusive privileges delegated by the present Confederation," to which was added, "an unqualified power of raising troops," . . . "of regulating the trade of the union, and of levying imposts and duties," but with a limit on the "percentage of the impost." This section also contained "a provision for empowering Congress to levy taxes upon the States, agreeable to the rule now in use, an enumeration of the white inhabitants and three-fifths of other descriptions," the context making still more plain that Pinckney intended no "direct" tax on the people or property, but the old system of assessing quotas on each State. This shows the absolute falsity of the much quoted section of the draft dealing with direct taxes.

The eighth article, Pinckney tells us, "only varies so far from the present [*i. e.*, of the Confederation] as to permit Congress drawing a revenue from the post-office."

The ninth article, "respecting the appointment of federal courts for deciding territorial controversy between different States, is the same with that in the Confederation."

The tenth article "gives Congress a right to institute all such offices as are necessary for managing the concerns of the union," and for erecting federal courts.

Then follows a hiatus in the enumeration of the clauses. The sixteenth article provides for a revision of the Constitution by consent of a given number of legislatures, and the wording suggests that Pinckney intended that the new Government should be referred to Congress and to the State legislatures, thus contradicting the draft, which referred it to conventions of the people, though, in summing up the defects of the Articles of Confederation, Pinckney distinctly referred to the fact that the faults of that Government were largely due to the fact that it had "nothing more, strictly speaking, than a legislative authority, and might be said in some measure to be under the control of the State legislatures." The number required to amend was such as would comprise a majority of the people as well as a majority of the States. Furthermore, on all important questions in Congress, Pinckney required the assent of two-thirds of both houses.

The seventeenth article is specially interesting because of the omission of its clauses from the Constitution as adopted, and their almost immediate enactment in the first eleven amendments. It provided for "the privilege of the Writ of Habeas Corpus, the trial by Jury in all cases, criminal as well as civil, the Freedom of the Press, and the prevention of Religious Tests as qualification to Offices of trust or emolument."

Such were the main outlines of Pinckney's propositions, but a number of minor points which he comments upon, without referring to their position in his plan, are worth noting. He gives to Congress the exclusive right of "coining money," and clearly meant to prevent issues of paper money, for he declares that all payments to the national treasury should be in "actual money"—a radical distinction from the draft, which gives Congress the power "to emit bills of credit." He also gives to the Federal power "the exclusive right of establishing regulations for the Government of the Militia." Another clause permits the admission of new States, and what is perhaps more striking is the addition of an article "authorizing the United States, upon petition from the majority of the citizens of any State, or convention authorized for that purpose, and of the Legislature of the State to which they wish to be annexed, or of the States among which they are willing to be divided, to consent to such junction or division." Other clauses gave Congress power to select a capital, to establish a national university, and to grant patents and copyrights.

Not the least curious difference in the two papers, as the slightest examination shows, was that the true plan submitted by Pinckney, though designed to be a sovereign Government, was really nothing more than a redrafting of the Articles of Confederation, and thus differed radically in form as well as in matter from the pseudo-draft and from the Constitution as adopted. Yet it is an interesting document, as revealing the probable source from which many details of our national compact were drawn; and since no authentic copy is extant, this rare pamphlet, which outlines so much of it, should be far better known, while the fabricated draft, instead of being quoted by our Supreme Court, should be relegated to the repository of historical lies.

PAUL LEICESTER FORD.

THE SALONS.

PARIS, May, 1895.

THE visit to the Salons explains why, lately, French writers on art in search of a sensation have been compelled to cross the Channel and discover Pre-Raphaelitism. In Paris there is no new fad, no new movement; there is not even the once inevitable picture of the year to serve as text upon which to hang an article. Judged from the exhibition standard, which makes novelty, extravagance, or eccentricity the measure of success, both collections this year are unusually dull and insignificant. Nor from the standpoint of art are they to be much more favorably commended. Without question, genuinely good work is in the minority, and what little there is has found its way chiefly to the Champ-de-Mars.

To go direct from the Royal Academy and the New Gallery to the Salons is to be struck with the immense amount of ability and energy everywhere displayed in the French shows. In England, only too often, the man who is most prolific has never mastered the elementary principles of his trade; while he who does know how to paint is so lacking in vitality that two or three sketches represent his year's labors. Among Salon exhibitors, however, genius for industry and technical ability go hand in hand. It is all the more irritating, therefore, to find the results obtained so tinctured with commonplace, so wholly without distinction. This is the immediate impression received upon entering the first large gallery at the Champs-Élysées. Opposite the main doorway, in presumably the place of honor, hangs a gigantic painting of the siege of Toulouse in 1218, by M. J. P. Laurens. There is no doubt of the research, the knowledge, the industry revealed; but to

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what purpose, since there is not a suggestion of beautiful color, of beautiful form, of beautiful composition? The arrangement of the wall, and scaffolding, and workmen is so prosaic as to suggest the camera, and yet, necessarily, it has not even the value of photographic accuracy. And so it is with M. Gervais's canvas, which claims generous wall-space in the same gallery—it is learned, it is scholarly, it is well painted; but it is nothing more than a good, straightforward, life-size study of a model, christened "Maria de Padilla," as an excuse for the nude figure and the southern background—the Alhambra this time—in which it is set. And so one might go on through the list, now wondering why M. Detaille, in painting the Prince of Wales, should have been so engrossed in getting a good likeness as to forget his picture; now amazed at the effrontery of M. Béroud in calling a shameless and vulgar display of upholstery and naked women a "Symphonie en rouge et or"; and constantly deploring the opportunities wasted, for many of these big canvases are designed for definite ends, and will eventually disfigure the public buildings they should have decorated.

Matters, in this respect, are somewhat mended at the Champ-de-Mars. Here, though not one of the large paintings shown may be an unqualified success, several are not without interest. Max Klinger, the German mystic, attracts by the power and individuality in his conception of such well-worn themes as the Crucifixion and the Judgment of Paris, even while he repels by a curious hardness in the treatment, an indifference to beauty, an absence of all atmosphere, so that his figures seem to jump violently from out their pictorial environment, and, in the case of the Judgment of Paris, by the frankly hideous architectural device which he has seen fit to give it as frame. M. Lhermitte astonishes by the realism of his rendering of "Les Halles," a realism vying with that of M. Zola's written description; but a sacrifice of actual truths to decorative needs would have better adapted it to the walls of the Hôtel de Ville for which it is intended. M. Roll charms by the gay sunlight and graceful nude women in his "Joies de Vivre," but his design, with its mul titude of motives, is unpleasantly wanting in unity and repose.

When all is said, however, it was really M. Puvis de Chavannes's decoration for the Boston Public Library which interested me the most, in the first place because it is M. de Chavannes who painted it, in the second, because of the building which it is ultimately destined to adorn. No one in America has as yet done so much in the cause of mural decoration as the directors of the Library in question. The work already completed by Mr. Sargent and Mr. Abbey is necessarily, to a certain extent, experimental. But the Frenchman is a past master in the art of decoration, and remembering Amiens and Rouen one has waited eagerly to see his design. I must confess that, where it now hangs, it is not altogether satisfactory. The light streams pitilessly upon it, when, no doubt, its illumination in the Library will be much more sober and severe. For subject it represents the Muses hailing the Genius of Light. The figures, white-robed, bearing lyres and roses, ascend from pale slopes overlooking a brilliant blue sea; and the blue of the water breaks somewhat violently the quiet harmony of pale grays and greens, while the draperies seem so many detached white surfaces. But in a more subdued light, in its appropriate architectural setting, no doubt present abruptness will disappear, and the now violent blue and whites will be found to tell most effectively. There will be no wasted detail, as one feels may be the case in Mr. Abbey's Holy Grail series; there will be no unexpected mingling of decorative and realistic methods as in Mr. Sargent's ceiling. It remains but for Mr. Whistler to complete his design to make the Boston Library as important in modern America as the Vatican was in the Rome of the Renaissance.

These large canvases assert themselves by mere force of size. But good work will not let itself be quite overpowered by brutal vulgarity or meretricious banality, and often the pictures which are least ambitious in dimensions are most conspicuous in effect. In the old Salon the simple landscapes of Pointelin, now a broad sweep of gray moorland, now a quiet mountain pool, or the dignified conventions of Harpignies and Français, attract the eye to them at once. Row upon row of the student *machines*, bidding for notice, are forgotten for the reticent "Bathers" of Fantin-Latour; for the well-known "Salon de Madame Récamier," by Orchardson, fine, though the Parisian protests against the English character of the faces; for the portrait of an old woman by Henner; for the portrait of a Dutch family by Mr. MacEwen, who has never done anything better than this simple group of father, mother, and child sitting peacefully in a room whose beauty depends, not upon studio properties, but upon the sympathetic study of light and atmosphere.

It is the same in the new Salon, where aggressive experiments and problems in paint lose by the comparison with the suave restraint of Cazin in his landscapes; with the genuinely beautiful color of Alfred Stevens in his marines, and in those wonderful little figures, as lovely in detail as the women of Terburg; with the rhythmical lines and suggestion of mystery in Carrière's "Théâtre Populaire," as individual and poetic an impression of the interior of a theatre as any painter has yet given. It is the ballet-dancer on the stage who has charmed M. Degas with the poetry of movement and color; but in the audience M. Carrière has sought his motive in the unconscious posing of men and women at a moment of emotional excitement; in the subtle effects of light and shadow seen through the thick atmosphere of the play-house. M. Carrière's return, after his absence of last year, is all the more welcome since this spring Mr. Whistler sends nothing, and M. Raffaëlli and M. Boldini are also unrepresented. Nor does M. Jean Béraud contribute the usual sensations, M. Carolus-Duran the usual portraits, while M. Besnard, in his studies of southern light, seems all too determined to startle; on the other hand, M. Aman-Jean seems to be devoting himself less to mysticism and more entirely to portraiture (though as a beautiful arrangement of a peacock and a girl in golden-flowered gown explains, at no sacrifice of the decorative conventions and the refinement of color always felt to be such a charm in his pictures).

The Glasgow school makes a strikingly strong showing; Mr. Lavery, Mr. Guthrie, and Mr. Walton sending portraits which appear no less distinguished in Paris than they did at home. M. Gandara's presentment of Madame Sara Bernhardt has, naturally, attracted much attention, though in her long white satin gown she might pass for but a recho of the tall, white-robed Princess of a year ago—a fact of which M. Gandara may be conscious, for, in proof that his undoubted ability is not restricted to the painting of satin, he hangs on either side curious little still-life studies; a skinned rabbit yielding a pleasant note of color. Mr. Alexander is also once more to the fore, but his new portraits tend somewhat too much to the eccentric. There is one in particular, of a woman in voluminous blue skirts, out-spreading as if over-exaggerated crinoline or blown about by a small hurricane, in which he seems to be challenging astonishment. It is clever, no doubt, but it lacks the repose and dignity which hitherto have characterized his canvases. His small sketches are more successful, because less extravagant in pose and arrangement.

Frenchmen are just now threatening to rebel against the continued prominence of foreigners in their exhibitions. This would be foolish, indeed, for it is chiefly the international scope of the Salons which has been the secret of their accepted importance. True, the strangers are many, but so they have been almost since there were Salons in which to exhibit. The American contingent has ever been large, and I do not think its members are now more excessive than in past years. Again, at the old Salon, besides the pictures of Mr. MacEwen, you may see the careful studies of cattle by Mr. Bisbing, the Eastern subjects of Mr. Bridgman, and the accustomed contributions of Mr. Picknell, Mr. Boggs, Mr. Ridgway Knight, Mr. Pearce, Mr. Walter Gay. Again, at the new Salon, Mr. Alexander Harrison has his marines, one or two bordering upon the grotesque in the figures introduced; Mr. Dannat offers new variation of his old theme of Spanish women and blue shadows, though he seems about to desert it for the painting of portraits, where his aggressive mannerisms could not so well be countenanced; and Mr. Rolshoven shows portraits that are not without vigor, though they might, to their advantage, gain in refinement. Mr. Humphreys Johnston is unusually strong, and if the "Domino Rose," the most striking of his six canvases, savors still of the experimental, it is a triumph of skill in the treatment of an extremely difficult color. Mr. Melchers remains faithful to the record of costume to which he so frequently is willing to sacrifice his picture, but he has improved vastly in his painting of flesh. Instead of distributing impartially the same rather leathery skin to each and all of the people in his pictures, he now respects the differences presented by sex and age and individuals, and there is an excellent family group of peasants to mark his progress. For the rest, Mrs. MacMonnies contributes two examples of her sound knowledge of the requirements and limitations of purely decorative painting, and Mr. Tiffany shows himself supreme among the designers of stained glass. It is to be regretted that Mr. La Farge did not prefer to exhibit more of his beautiful glass and fewer of the Japanese sketches and pictures for which a special gallery has been set apart. These do not show him at his best when, as Parisians unfortunately do not know quite so well as New Yorkers, he is a decorative artist of rare distinction.

Among the sculptors, Americans have also distinguished themselves—not at the Champ-de-Mars, where there is little to note save the collection, in a separate gallery, of Carriès's life-work, the tomb by M. Bartholomé, portions of which have been exhibited in previous Salons, and a couple of busts by M. Rodin. But at the Champ Élysées, Mr. Frank Duveneck makes his first appearance as a sculptor, and has achieved an immediate and very striking success. His design cannot rival M. Bartholomé's

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in elaboration, for it is simplicity itself, but it expresses even more perfectly the serenity and majesty of death. There is both genuine feeling and masterly modelling in the figure of the woman who lies outstretched upon the simple low tomb, her hands folded, a palm branch to one side, resting gently on the flowing draperies. Mr. Duveneck has never revealed so fine a sense of beauty in his painting. Mr. MacMonnies's model for the statue of Shakspere, later to grace the National Library in Washington, promises impressiveness, though the figure is not so accomplished as the delightfully modelled head. Of the many Joans of Arc which the year has brought forth, M. Dubois's is by far the most satisfactory, though, as an equestrian statue, it cannot but invite comparison with Frémiet's masterpiece in the Place des Pyramides, and suffer in consequence. Nothing else in the large court is so noteworthy, save the bas-reliefs by M. Falguière.

In both Salons, especially in the Champ-de-Mars, more than the accustomed space is reserved for decorative work—the *objets d'art* of the Catalogue. In both, in the black-and-white sections, the prints are much more remarkable than the original drawings. At the Champs-Élysées M. Baude and M. Leveillé, Mr. Cole and Mr. Wolf carry off the honors among the wood-engravers; M. Dillon and M. Fantin-Latour, M. Roedel and M. Willette among the lithographers. At the Champ-de-Mars there is less rubbish, and the proportion of good work is larger. M. Florian shows marvellous wood-engravings after M. Renouard's pencil sketches. M. Valloton, M. Jeanniot, and M. Lepère amuse by their original and vigorous wood-cuts. M. Lunois and M. Auriol have made vast strides in advance in the printing of lithographs in color. And Max Klinger is now included among the etchers. N. N.

Correspondence.

RECTIFICATIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the review of Lord De Tabley's poems in your number of yesterday, his picture of Cleopatra is justly described in no complimentary terms. But your reviewer seems not to be aware that the noble writer was not thinking of Shakspere at all, but "transmuting" directly from Horace, whose wild and joyous rush of denunciation in the thirty-seventh ode of his first book assumes the curiously stiff and labored step of Lord De Tabley's quatrains.

The review of Bishop Clark's 'Reminiscences' leads me to point out the recurrence in his pages of one never-ending blunder of American writers. The Bishop speaks of Mr. Charles Astor Bristed as distinguished at *Oxford*. One would think that a Bishop of the Protestant Episcopal Church might be aware of the existence of the University of Cambridge—the Alma Mater of the present Archbishop of Canterbury. W. E.

Quincy, Mass., June 7, 1895.

Notes.

A circular recently issued by the Historical Society of Pennsylvania to its members asks contributions or a guarantee to the amount of $2,000 per annum for five years, for the purpose of obtaining a full copy of the Journal of the Board of Trade from the original in the English Public Record Office. "Having worked much in this very series," says the writer of a private letter, "I do not hesitate to assert that they constitute the most important existing collection of manuscripts relating to America during the colonial period. Especially important is the Journal, for it contains the day-to-day proceedings of what was practically the supreme executive of the American colonies, and alone makes possible a clear understanding of many important historical manuscripts that, taken by themselves, are apparently meaningless. Before this body came nearly every person prominent in American history, to argue or give evidence on some subject; the commercial policy of Great Britain, which so largely caused the Revolution, was shaped in it, as was also the action on the western colonies and the sequestration of the western lands, which, carried to its extreme in the Quebec act, was another of the potent causes of our Revolution; and, indeed, its action on American laws, paper money, bounties, and many other subjects is as vital for an understanding of the colonial period, so far as the government of the colonies and their relations with the mother country are concerned, as the federal reports are for an understanding of the United States statutes at large."

Lamson, Wolffe & Co., Boston, will have an American edition of Ferd. Ongania's 'Art of Printing in the Renaissance.'

The Century Co. are about to issue the Life of Sonya Kovalevsky, by the Duchess of Cajanello, together with the great mathematician's recollections of her childhood, translated by Miss Hapgood; also Mrs. Burton Harrison's 'An Errant Wooing.'

'The Ameer Abdur Rahman [of Afghanistan],' by Stephen Wheeler, is the first of Frederick Warne & Co.'s "Public Men of To-Day; An International Series." 'Li Hung Chang,' by Prof. Robert K. Douglas, will come next.

Further announcements by Macmillan & Co. are 'The Climates and Baths of Great Britain'; 'Catholic Socialism,' by Prof. Francesco S. Nitti; a clerical autobiography, 'Fifty Years, or Dead Years and Living Deeds,' by the Rev. Harry Jones; and 'Off the Mill,' a holiday tour of Switzerland, by Canon Browne, of St. Paul's. Publication of Jules Marcou's Life of Agassiz has been postponed till September; and to the autumn will also be relegated John La Farge's lectures on art, and Prof. Edward Channing's 'The United States of America, 1765–1861.'

An interesting title is 'Southern Statesmen of the Old Régime,' by an instructor in the new, Prof. William P. Trent of the University of the South, Sewanee, Tenn. The work will be published by T. Y. Crowell & Co.

Ginn & Co. have nearly ready 'A Short Constitutional History of England,' by Henry St. Clair Feilden, and a 'History of Greece,' by Philip Van Ness Myers.

The second volume of 'Moods: A Journal Intime,' is on the eve of issuing from the Jenson Press, 810 Sansom Street, Philadelphia. Later in the summer, 'Bookplates: An Historical Sketch,' by Charles Dexter Allen, will proceed from the same source. Both works will be printed in the type of Nicolas Jenson, and will be illustrated.

Sir Walter and no end. Two editions of the Waverley Novels have been vying with each other during the past year, and now a more modest but most welcome reprint is begun by Archibald Constable & Co., London. Here the handy size is what first strikes us as admirable, then the scarlet cloth binding with white paper labels; within, the typography is correspondingly captivating, a clear, full-bodied letter filling a page of pleasing proportions. The contents are Scott pure and simple, for it is his favorite (Cadell) edition of 1829-33 that is followed even to the regulation steel frontispiece and title-page vignette by some of the best artists of that period, but without breaking a story in the middle of a volume. The series of course begins with 'Waverley,' and in due time (September 28, 1896) the forty-eight redcoats will all be mustered in.

Prof. Dowden's cautious recommendation of Sir Edward Sullivan's 'Tales from Scott' (Roberts Bros.) is prophetic; they are but bald outlines or syllabi of the great romances, from which the romance is well evaporated.

Another *Blackwood* débutant, John Galt, succeeds Michael Scott, author of 'Tom Cringle's Log,' in the well-chosen series of resuscitated novels which Macmillan is publishing. Of Galt's superabundant productions, 'Annals of the Parish' and 'The Ayrshire Legatees' have been coupled to make a single sample volume, possessing a real historical value for the reign of George the Third. Mr. Alfred Ainger furnishes the introduction.

From D. Appleton & Co. we have, in the "Great Commanders Series," 'General Sheridan,' by Gen. Henry E. Davies. Gen. Davies completed this volume only a little while before his death. It was evidently a labor of love, in which his regard for his commander everywhere shines out. He frankly says that it is a compilation more than a composition, for the basis is necessarily the autobiography of Sheridan, aided by other memoirs of campaigns written by comrades and friends of Davies. The result is a warm eulogy, faithful to the leading historical facts, and earnestly espousing the hero's side whenever a question arises between him and any other. The book thus becomes all the more stimulating for the casual reader, and no harm is done, for students will know where to look for the other side in disputed matters in the campaigns either of the West or of the East. The brilliant and energetic Sheridan had a personality which must always be attractive to a reading public, and Gen. Davies's presentation of it is clear, compact, and eminently readable.

'The Evolution of Industry,' by Henry Dyer (Macmillan), is a labored and tedious essay on the art of extracting the sunbeams of prosperity from the cucumber of paternal legislation. We have discovered nothing original in the book, but it presents the speculations of many writers upon social topics in a clear and systematic manner.

The French are fortunate in having two carefully made year-books of music and the drama; the British have only the insufficient *Era Almanack*. For the second time now Mr. William Archer has gathered together his year's work in dramatic criticism, and the 'Theatrical World of 1894' (London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners) is even more elaborately prepared than its predecessor. Mr. Archer is easily the best of English dramatic critics, well equipped, possessing broad sympathies, keen insight, and an understanding of the technic of the theatre.

Mr. Archer and Mr. R. W. Lowe have made a selection of Hazlitt's 'Dramatic Essays' (London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners), which show him at his best. Like Lamb and like Leigh Hunt, Hazlitt is a limner of

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histrionic portraits, and the three together restore for us the actors of the beginning of this century, just as Cibber's incomparable 'Apology' restores for us the actors two generations earlier. Mr. Archer contributes an acute and searching analysis of Hazlitt's work.

The fact that the address given before the German Scientific Association at its meeting in Vienna last September, by Prof. Forel of Zurich, already appears in a second edition (Bonn: Emil Strauss) is an indication that it is a paper of more than usual interest. Prof. Forel is well known on account of his researches upon ants and upon hypnotism, among other subjects, and it may be mentioned in passing that he is one of the few Germans who share the Anglo-Saxon belief in the general harmfulness of alcoholic beverages. The title of his paper is 'Gehirn und Seele,' and his view may be characterized as a pantheistic monism. He believes in a universal force of which matter, energy, and consciousness are different manifestations. More interesting than his philosophical views is the general sketch which he gives of the various questions now chiefly occupying the attention of scientific men.

Two Leipzig booksellers, Paul Schulze and Otto Koller, prepared as a "Festschrift" for the celebration of Bismarck's eightieth birthday a neat volume of seventy pages entitled 'Bismarck-Literatur' (Leipzig: Grachlauer), containing a classified list of all German and the most important foreign Bismarckiana that had appeared up to the end of March, 1895, consisting of letters and speeches, occasional discourses, table-talk, "winged words," biographies, characterizations, and criticisms *pro et contra*, works on the Arnim affair and on Bismarck's retirement and its consequences, poems, plays, and humorous and satirical productions. Histories, like Sybel's 'Die Begründung des Deutschen Reiches,' are also included in the list. The voluminous octogenary Bismarck literature that has been published since April 1, will doubtless be considered in a later edition of this interesting bibliography, the practical value of which is greatly enhanced by an excellent index. The retail price of each work is also given.

'Le Homestead aux États-Unis' (Paris: Guillaumin & Cie.) is the title of an elaborate treatise by the French statistician and economist L. Vacher, on the American homestead in its legal, moral, political, economical, and social relations to the community at large, to sailors, soldiers, Indians, and the general development of the industry of the country. The author makes comparison of this institution with the English manor, the German Hofrecht, and the Russian Mir. The lack of an index in such a work is painfully felt.

According to an estimate made by the Swedish Bureau of Statistics, the Swedish language was used at the beginning of this year by about 6,300,000 persons. This is based on the last general census, which showed the following geographical distribution of Swedish-speaking people: in Sweden 4,750,000, Finland 325,000, Norway 38,000, Denmark 34,000, Germany 12,000, the rest of Europe 10,000, America (by which is meant both continents) 770,000, and a scattering of a few thousands in other parts of the world. Of special interest in this report are the figures connected with Finland, which show that, in spite of the Russian encouragement of the native language, Swedish is still spoken by over an eighth of the entire population.

The jubilee of the sailing of Sir John Franklin's Arctic expedition has just been celebrated in London. Mr. Clements Markham gave an interesting sketch of Franklin's life and services, among which was the boarding and capture of a United States gunboat at New Orleans while commanding the boats of H. M. S. *Bedford*. Sir Leopold M'Clintock, who accompanied at least four of the search expeditions, testified to the admirable order and discipline which manifestly had prevailed with Sir John Franklin's crews. He closed by saying that "the generous and sympathetic help of our American kinsmen throughout the whole of the Franklin search marked the beginning of that drawing together of the two great nations which was so striking a feature of the present day, and of which our children might hope to reap the whole fruition."

The English Government has at length been goaded into taking some decided action in regard to slavery in Zanzibar. For years attention has been persistently called to the fact that large numbers of slaves are annually imported from the mainland to the island of Pemba to work in the clove plantations. The jealousy of supervision on the part of the Arab planters has hitherto prevented any official examination of the manner in which they treat their slaves, although the mortality among them is notoriously great. It is apparently almost impossible for a white man to set foot on the island. In a report by Mr. A. Hardinge, the British Consul-General, upon the whole question of slavery in the Protectorate, he suggests a registration of the slave population at present in the islands, the establishment of a coast-guard patrol officered by Englishmen, and a penalty for "raw slave trading" of imprisonment for life. A policy of immediate abolition is deprecated mainly for fear of its disastrous effect on the financial position of the Sultanate.

The Atlas of the State of New York just completed and issued by Julius Bien & Co. will supersede all others till the State itself undertakes one in emulation of New Jersey's example. The great folio opens with an index to places, and the first map is that of the United States, followed by New York on a scale of one inch to twelve miles, and by the several counties on a scale of one inch to two and a half miles. There is, besides, a map of land-grant patents and purchases, labelled in red, on a scale of one inch to fifteen miles. These are not contour maps, but the roads are laid down, and in every way the Atlas is a desirable possession. New York, Brooklyn, Albany, Syracuse, Rochester, and Buffalo are mapped on separate sheets. There are also shaded maps of the State for rainfall, temperature, elevation, and population, besides some graphic statistics. The engraving possesses the excellence of the best work of the house to whose enterprise we owe the Atlas, as well as the more detailed Atlas of the Metropolitan District.

A widespread interest attaches to the third volume of the final report of the State Geologist of New Jersey on 'Water-supply, Water-power, the Flow of Streams, and Attendant Phenomena.' This laborious work has been prepared by Mr. C. C. Vermeule, consulting engineer of the survey, and, as an exhaustive study of the subject for New Jersey, leaves nothing to be desired. The watershed of every significant stream is examined in detail for its flow, ground-flow, evaporation, liability to drought, purity and potability of its water, water-power actually employed and potential. Local flow and low-water gaugings have been compared with those of other streams more or less analogous in other States, and a large array of tables and formulas originally computed by Mr. Vermeule furnish the most valuable basis extant for the calculations of water engineers in any section of the Atlantic coast at least. No other State certainly has been so thoroughly explored in a scientific manner as New Jersey can now boast of being, in the vital matter of water-supply for a rapidly increasing and dense population. Mr. Vermeule's report is accompanied by maps, diagrams, and pictorial illustrations. A list of mills and net horse-power by watersheds and by industries, another of drainage areas, forested areas, and population (in 1880) of stream basins, and one of surface and drainage area of lakes and ponds, complete this indispensable work of reference.

The seventeenth annual report of Mr. W. E. Foster of the Providence Public Library shows a gratifying gain in both the number of volumes in the Library and their use. The slight falling off in the percentage of fiction read and the increase of the works of history issued indicates the development of interest in the more solid departments of literature. This fact is the more noteworthy as there is apparently no age restriction on the use of the Library by the school-children. Some progress has been made towards the obtaining a new building for want of which the work of the Library is seriously crippled. It is with some hesitation that we express a doubt as to the expediency of printing a long list of donors, many of whom give only pamphlets, in some cases apparently mere advertisements.

—Previously begun articles excepted, there is nothing in the June magazines so striking as Thomas A. Janvier's eye-witness account in the *Century* of the festival performances last August of the Comédie-Française in the old Roman theatre at Orange. Government patronage and M. Jules Claretie have together put the final stamp of success on the work of the two societies of the Félibres—the Félibrige and the Cigaliers—in reviving in their own *Midi* a classic form of the drama in the noble building which they have partly restored and partly left in the majesty of its ancient ruin. The fact that the Provençal poets are encouraged by the enthusiasm roused by this presentation of the "Œdipus" and the "Antigone," under the conditions of positive sublimity described by Mr. Janvier, to hope that the Roman theatre of Orange, "again perfect, shall become the home of the highest dramatic art, and a place of periodic pilgrimage, biennial or even annual, for the whole of the art-loving world," has for readers at large an interest which cannot fail to be stimulated by the delightful illustrations and ample data of this article. Aesthetic interest, in this case pleasantly tinctured with a patriotic feeling of possessorship, must likewise be stimulated by the excellently pictured and written description of the new Boston Public Library. Mrs. Van Rensselaer presents the architectural claims of this building, whose series of mural decorations have for months past been the theme of universal comment, and Mr. Lindsay Swift, of the librarian's department, makes the reader acquainted with principles in accordance with which vast collections of books must, to be accessible, move and have their being. An instructive antithesis in points of view is offered by the juxtaposition of Mr. Howells's "Tribulations of a Cheerful Giver" with Josiah Flynt's "Two Tramps in England." The latter writer as usual, after having temporarily identified himself with the class he is studying, makes a literal transcript of its qualities, and confines his conclusions re-

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garding it within the briefest limits—in this instance to the single sentence, "The professional beggar should be shut up indefinitely." If this consummation should ever be accomplished, there would be no further opportunity for Mr. Howells's graceful whimsies of emotion and logic on the subject of almsgiving. In Mr. Howells's view, the giver is, as a matter of course, he who easily drops the dole of a coin into an outstretched palm; in the more strenuous view of the new charity the only giving humanely permissible is of time, pains, and personal service. Both fiction and verse in this number of the magazine are more than ordinarily good, while in the account of the discovery of Glacier Bay, by John Muir, may be found the several attractions that belong to a narrative of adventure and peril, personally recorded, and imbued with the spirit of national extension in the best sense of the word.

—The same and other kindred merits are also to be found in the one article which this month scores a marked success in *Harper's*. In his description of the hand-to-hand encounter with the Indians from which he and a remainder of his scouts narrowly escaped with their lives, Gen. Forsyth gives his readers a sensation as nearly that of listening to a *vivavoce* narrative as the printed page ever vouchsafes to the fascinated attention; the frontier fight of a quarter of a century ago becomes vividly present, as its survivor rehearses its mingled picturesqueness and horrors, while doing a soldier's justice to his comrades by name, no less than to the warrior, Roman Nose, whose requiem he writes. Otherwise, although Mr. Lang dallies a while with the subject of his national game of golf, and President Low touches upon the pregnant question of combinations among workingmen and combinations among capitalists, the composition of the number is such as inevitably to call up the suggestion that readers must read, even when writers have little or nothing to write.

—The sum total of the current *Scribner's* amounts, as far as finished papers go, to not much more than another version of the same sad though indisputable fact. If the burning subject of bicycling has not been exhausted at the hands of the three illustrators and the four writers who treat it symposium-fashion, it has at least been brought to a point where a temporary lull in discussion will not be ungrateful to readers whose thoughts still incline to more than one line of locomotion. Medical endorsement of the exercise for men and women alike, under restrictions of common sense for both, is supplied by Dr. J. West Roosevelt. In the short story, "A Coöperative Courtship," by Annie S. Winston, interest is kept alive by the fortunate mixture of naturalness and ingenuity that serves, now and again, to give a saving measure of freshness to the purely commonplace. The next number of the magazine will bring to a close Mrs. Humphry Ward's artistic docket of a new female offender.

—In the *Atlantic*, William Sharp's reminiscences of Christina Rossetti will be turned to with eagerness, and will perhaps be laid down with a shade of disappointment in the individuality portrayed. The writer's acquaintance with Miss Rossetti did not begin until she had entered at once upon middle age and upon the sadder, lonelier, and more self-repressed stage of her life. Others who knew her earlier have given a brighter, if less saintly, view of her personality. Mr. Sharp's description, however, of a chance meeting with her, at a house in Bloomsbury, and of the voice and accent of his unknown fellow-visitor, whose "words came away from the mouth and lips as clearly as a trill from a bird," gives as charming an impression of the poetess as her most ardent admirer could wish. Disappointment, again, almost-certainly awaits the reader who is accustomed to turn with high expectations to this magazine's educational articles, in the paper by Prof. Corson on "Vocal Culture in its relation to Literary Culture." Of all forms of culture, none is in more pressing need of incentive in our own country than the culture of the voice in any and all of its relations, but this is, unfortunately, a paper not likely to do more than excite an amiable assent to its generalities. For the best of the *Atlantic*, readers must, this month, look among its uncompleted articles.

—Affixed to the fourth volume of the new edition of Poe is a welcome bibliography of the Tales, with notes. The editors quote statements of the author as to the number of tales he had written, and, as they have not been able to find so many, express the opinion that his figures are incorrect. We are not so sure of this. One of his stories, "The Visionary," appeared anonymously in the *Lady's Book* (not then known as *Godey's*) in January, 1834, and was thus, so far as is known, the second in order of publication. The editors make it the sixth, being unaware of its appearance before July, 1835, in the *Southern Literary Messenger*. And although Poe is not known to have acknowledged them, by reprinting or otherwise, we fancy that other tales from his pen are to be found in the *Lady's Book* of this period. They may be unworthy to associate with his later stories, but we think no other person in America could have written "The Maniac's Story" (September, 1833), "The History of a Hat" (August, 1834), "The Duel" (October, 1834), or "The Prima Donna" (December, 1834). Poe is also known to have published articles, never reprinted, in two periodicals of which no copies can be found, while the editors have failed to find the first place of publication of some which have always been included in his works. Thus, they suppose what they call "Mystification (Von Jung)" to have appeared first in 1840, place unknown. They will find it in the *American Monthly* (June, 1837), where it is called "Von Jung, the Mystific." This date makes its place in order of date fifteen instead of twenty-four. "The Angel of the Odd" they guess to have been published after February, 1845, but it was issued in the *Columbian Magazine*, October, 1844. As the editors traced another tale to this magazine for August of that year, it is strange that they overlooked this. "The Sphinx," which they suppose to have appeared in 1849, will be found in *Arthur's Magazine* for January, 1846.

—The series of articles by Téodor de Wyzewa on life and manners in Germany, which appeared some years ago in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, have now been issued in a volume entitled 'Chez les Allemands, l'Art et les Mœurs' (Paris). It is evidently the author's intention to treat the subject in an unprejudiced manner, but the tendency to draw general conclusions from limited observations often leads him into queer errors. In the eyes of a Frenchman everything that is not Parisian is provincial. Wyzewa looks at Germany from this point of view, and his division of the whole empire into two parts, Berlin and *la province*, is fatal to any proper appreciation of the numerous independent centres of culture outside of the capital. It is impossible that Berlin should ever exercise over Dresden, Leipzig, and Munich the preponderating influence that Paris does over Tours, Mâcon, Lyons, and other French cities. He relates that on one occasion a young lawyer invited a few gentlemen to dinner; his wife, however, did not appear at the table, but ate with the servant in the kitchen. From this instance he infers that German husbands regard their wives as playing the same part socially as beer and tobacco. He seems to imagine that the grisette is as much of an institution in German university towns as in the Latin Quarter, and wonders that the students never speak of her, interpreting this silence as another proof of slight esteem for the fair sex. He expresses his great admiration for the quickness and skill with which all the newest inventions are practically utilized in Berlin, whither, he says, men of other nations must go if they wish to see the actual workings of the most recent achievements of science, industry, and education. He doubts whether any American city is in these respects ahead of the imperial metropolis on the Spree. And yet, with all these advantages, it is a cold, unsympathetic, and unlovable place, made, as it were, in the very image of the Prussian himself, who is thoroughly uncongenial not only to foreigners, but also to natives of other parts of Germany, however much they may appreciate his intelligence and energy of character. Doubtless this view will be endorsed by many persons competent to form an opinion on the subject. On numerous other points Wyzewa's statements, even when they contain a kernel of truth, are altogether too sweeping, and in some cases utterly false.

—Hedwig Bender, whose philosophical writings are well known in Germany, gives, in a late issue of Virchow's "Collection of Popular Scientific Lectures," an interesting account of Luise von François, a writer of novels and short stories who is unfortunately little known in this country, but who well deserved the high reputation which she attained in Germany. Karl Hillebrand pronounced her principal novel, 'Die letzte Reckenburgerin,' to be a "work which stands alone in our literature," and Fritz Reuter loved it so much that he kept it constantly lying on his writing-table. The author herself had rather a melancholy life. For twenty years she was the sole dependence of a blind father and a bed-ridden mother, and her first writings were undertaken for the purpose of adding to the frugal means of support of this afflicted family. Her long confinement in a sick-room ended by making her averse to ordinary social intercourse, but she found much consolation throughout her life in a number of remarkable literary friendships—notably with Konrad Ferdinand Meyer and Marie von Ebner-Eschenbach. It is, by the way, rather remarkable, considering how depressing an effect upon genius the general attitude towards women must have in Germany, that so large a proportion of the best part of current literature is produced by them. Ossip Schubin surpasses most of the novelists who write in German in that *verve* and lightness of touch which the Germans do not always know how to appreciate when it is given to them, and her 'Gloria Victis' is a novel of very great dramatic power. It now appears that Fanny Groeger, whose four short stories, just issued, have created such a rage in Berlin, is, like her, an Austrian of high social position.

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PATER'S GREEK STUDIES.

Greek Studies: A Series of Essays by Walter Pater, late Fellow of Brasenose College. Prepared for the Press by Charles L. Shadwell, Fellow of Oriel College. Macmillan. 1895. Pp. ix, 319.

A POSTHUMOUS collection of essays is too often a bundle of chaff to be floated on the flood-tide of a reputation. Mr. Pater left no chaff to be misused by partial friends or designing publishers. Whatever may have been his faults, carelessness (*otiosity*, as he might himself have called it) was not among them. He took nothing in hand, however slight, which he did not make his own by careful thought and conscientious workmanship. He was not content simply with accurate learning and scholarship; he aimed always at presenting his results in a finished and suitable form, as a work of art.

The papers here collected by Mr. Shadwell, though published at long intervals beginning with 1876, have a general unity of purpose and conception. They deal with Greek art and with some special topics in mythology; but they acquire a special charm and value from the author's individual mode of treatment. Amid the shoals of treatises on the myth of Dionysus, for example, Mr. Pater's study has its own distinct and permanent usefulness because, starting with facts and theories that are now the common property of scholars, it arranges them in order and evolves from them an organic whole; it traces out the development of the myth by the aid of an imagination at once poetic and scientific. His method, so subtle and delicate, moving within careful limits, illuminates a subject that is difficult to our modern minds because so far removed from our modern thoughts and ideas. Myth-making is a process not easily comprehended by matter-of-fact people; it is a poetic process, and is best interpreted by one who has some of the poet's gifts. Mr. Pater helps us to follow it in the myth of Dionysus by a wide range of illustrations—a range so wide as to include the cup of Galahad, or Shelley's "Sensitive Plant," or Benozzo Gozzoli's fresco of the Invention of Wine in the Pisan Campo Santo. He suggests in exquisite language the primitive connection between sculpture and mythology.

"Conceive," he says, speaking of the growth of the idea of Dionysus, "the image of an actual person in whom, somehow, all those impressions of the vine and the fruit, as the highest type of the life of the green sap, had become incorporate; all the scents and colors of its flowers and fruit, and something of its curling foliage; the chances of its growth; the enthusiasm, the easy flow of more choice expression, as its juices mount within one; as Wordsworth says,

> "'Beauty born of murmuring sound
> Shall pass into her face'—

so conceive an image into which the beauty, born of the vine, has passed; and you have the idea of Dionysus, as he appears entirely fashioned at last by central Greek poetry and art, and consecrated in the great festivals of the Wine-press and the Flowers."

It was thus that there "grew a series of wondrous personalities, of which the Greek imagination became the dwelling-place; beautiful, perfectly understood human outlines embodying a strange, delightful, lingering sense of clouds and water and sun." These personalities, these "spiritual forms," as Blake calls them, received their supreme embodiment in the drama of Æschylus, and in the Phidian marbles of the Parthenon.

The essay on the "Bacchanals" of Euripides pursues the same theme with the same poetic insight. It gives the best analysis we have yet seen of the probable temper and mixed motives of Euripides in writing his latest drama, as well as of the fantastic combination the play presents of quasi-ethical and moral purpose with picturesque and cruel religious ecstasies and orgies. The orgies of the Voudoo and the ecstasies of a Methodist camp-meeting in the South would serve as a useful modern commentary on the wild and savage rites of the troop of bacchanalian worshippers; but the vulgarity of both would give no hint of those mænad dances and encampments on the high mountain lawns which confer on the "Bacchanals" its choicest inspirations. The spirit of such scenes in a world that has almost vanished from our conceptions is perfectly conveyed in the following description (pp. 53, 54):

"Himself a woman-like god, it was on women and feminine souls that the power of Dionysus mainly fell; and so the Thiasus, also, is almost exclusively formed of women, of those who experience most directly the influence of things which touch thought through the senses—the presence of night, the expectation of morning, the nearness of wild, unsophisticated, natural things—the echoes, the coolness, the noise of frightened creatures as they climbed through the darkness, the sunrise seen from the hill-tops, the disillusion, the bitterness of satiety, the deep slumber which comes with the morning."

From such scenes and customs the imitative arts drew new motives of freedom and energy and freshness; they suggested the graceful languor of the fallen Mænad of Praxiteles, the wind-touched draperies, the rhythm and the postures on many a sarcophagus frieze and Pompeiian wall-painting. The possible connection of such ritual and such mad doings with ethics and morality is maintained by Euripides, apparently with a grave face, and is one of those puzzles which seem rooted in the perennial illogicality of the human intellect, bound fast in the chains of human emotion and associations. Religion, in its earliest forms, and ethics, have at least this in common, that both are rooted in custom and immemorial usage, and hence their sanctions become entangled and confused. The murderous issue of the "Bacchanals" is not, after all, so far removed in spirit from the butchery of an Hypatia; and each might well give rise to the indignant line of Lucretius:

> "Tantum religio potuit suadere malorum."

It is a far easier task to trace the ethical purport and associations in the myth of Demeter and Persephone, for we have the less doubtful warrant of the poets from Pindar down and the testimony of grave prose-writers as to the lessons of the Eleusinian mysteries. The history of this development Mr. Pater pursues through those phases which he has usefully defined in the growth of myth—the instinctive, namely, or half-conscious period; the conscious or literary, when the idea passes into the mind and becomes the property of the poets; and the third or ethical phase, when the story of ideal personages lends itself, under the shaping of choicer spirits, to elevated sentiments of sorrow or of awe—when Demeter, for example, becomes "the type of divine grief, and Persephone the goddess of death, yet with a promise of life to come." Such ideals and such sentiments Mr. Pater finds translated and expressed, for these deities especially, in the art of the best period. He sees in Demeter mourning for her lost daughter "our Lady of Sorrows, the Mater Dolorosa of the ancient world"; and in the Eleusinian processions and ritual an anticipation of the mysteries of the Middle Ages and of our modern pilgrimages. If it occurs to any one that such analogies cast a borrowed mediæval color on ancient life and customs, we must remember that the latest matter-of-fact methods of science point to this very mode of investigation and comparison. The mythologists are now beginning to agree that resemblances of myths and fairy-tales over the face of the globe depend quite as much on the kinship of the human mind as on imitation or diffusion. It is an old story that the early Christian Church was hospitable to pagan myths and customs; we know that the Christians of the catacombs fused the legend of Orpheus with their own symbolism, and probably borrowed some pictures of a future world from the same order of ideas. The flowers of Easter Sunday are gathered with the same thrill and the same hope that was more vaguely felt ages ago by the Greek rustic when he welcomed in the awakening spring the new birth of Persephone.

The later essays in this volume were the beginning of a series on the history of Greek art, which Mr. Pater should have lived to complete. No English scholar was better qualified by native gifts, by his special studies, and by the graces of his style to sketch an outline of the course of Greek art for laymen, which should be at once learned, sympathetic, and free from technicalities, than the author of the essay on Winckelmann and of the masterly little volume on Plato. It is true that some critics smiled at Mr. Pater's Greek accents (or his printer's), and affected to believe that no good thing could come out of the mouth of one who was guilty of a misquotation. Such critics might indeed enlighten the world on the subject of accentuation and of Platonic syntax. The fact remained that Mr. Pater had lived with his author most of his life; he knew his Plato intimately, was penetrated by his spirit, and had a mission to introduce his thoughts and personality to mankind in general, which did not fall within the province of the philologians. In the matter of Greek art his mission was clearer still. He brought to his task a trained and delicate taste, a breadth and sureness of information, the tokens of which are manifest in these lectures. If they had been finished, we should have gained in them the introduction and the sympathetic guidance of an artist, whereas now we have to depend rather on the manuals of archæologists.

In his introductory sketch of Greek sculpture, Mr. Pater warns us against that cold isolation in which we now view all remains of Greek sculpture—isolation from the concomitant arts, from the architectural group to which, with careful estimate of distance and point of observation, the frieze belonged; isolation, also, from the clear Greek skies and the poetical Greek life. He reminds us that Greek sculpture was far from being exclusively intellectualized or idealistic. "The black and gray world of extant antique that remains to us ranged within the cold walls of our galleries, needs to be translated back into ivory and gold," and to be replaced in its rich and tasteful *milieu* of minor precious works, intaglios, coins, and vases. The Greeks were not in the least aware of Hegel's canon that "sculpture aims at the pure abstract form, and therefore abandons color and painting." On the contrary, they were prone to a sort of "realism," as we call it; they were frankly fond of warmth and color. And so, in spite of Hegel, they were actually capable of tinting the hair and faces of their statues, of coloring their eyes to imitate life, and of adding metal bridles to the horses of the Parthenon frieze. All this we are liable to forget in the galleries; indeed,

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we have so few hints of it in the museums that the very statement of the practice still shocks our modern sensibilities.

Mr. Pater had always a horror of pedantry, but his graceful style covers a body of ample and solid learning which dissembles itself as much as possible. A single sentence or a single line sums up *en passant* the gist of some recent elaborate and technical discussion. In writing about the "Harpy Tomb," for example; he corrects in a single line the common notion that the winged birds with human faces are harpies, and prefers to call them sirens. An archæologist might tell us as much; but few archæologists could go on, as Mr. Pater does, to illustrate the symbolism of the little figures, or souls, carried in the sirens' arms, by referring to mediæval reliefs and colored windows in which the soul of Lazarus or of the Virgin Mary is similarly represented. In such matters he shows the precision of the scholar without pedantry, the taste of the artist without technicality.

Another special quality of his criticism is that he sees his subject whole, not from this or that side of the specialist. When he discourses of the Discobolus and the Diadumenus, he cannot forget the public and family life which they proceeded from and illustrated; he cannot forget Pindar's verses, which, in his own century, conferred on the young victors the splendor and immortality which in the next century were sought from the sculptor rather than the poet. The votive statues which were so multiplied in that age of devotion to athleticism, he calls most happily "a countless series of popular illustrations of Pindar's odes." And certainly the gymnastic that was crowned by nothing more vulgar than an Olympian ode or a statue of the Discobolus, must have been a step towards Plato's μουσική—towards the cultivation of a "fair proportion between body and soul." How far this "beau ideal of athletic motion or athletic repose" falls short of the whole conception of Plato's music, Mr. Pater defines with subtle discrimination in a passage that is not without its lesson just now:

> "When he came to his main business with the quoit-player, the wrestler, the runner, Myron did not for a moment forget that they too were animals, young animals, delighting in natural motion, in free course through the yielding air, over uninterrupted space. . . . It is of the essence of the athletic prizeman, involved in the very ideal of the quoit-player, the cricketer, not to give expression to mind in antagonism to, or invasion of, the body, whose healthful balance of functions it may so easily perturb—to disavow that insidious enemy of the fairness of the bodily soul as such."

In reading these last words of an unfinished message we cannot help regretting that the delicate vibrations of such sentences are to be heard no more, that they are to die away with the pathos and beauty of a passing-bell. There are people who detest Mr. Pater's style and who "canna thole him," because his art at times passes over into artifice and preciosity. Yet in an age when all the world is making haste to manufacture "copy," and to sell it at fetching prices, one may pardon the foibles that spring from painstaking. It is true that Mr. Pater liked to play upon his instrument and to draw from it melodies more varied and harmonious than those popular barrel-organ tunes which instructors in rhetoric now grind out so assiduously in company with their pupils. His paragraphs recall the warm, low colors of tapestry, its elaborate patterns wrought with many careful stitches. If at times they give the effect of something overwrought and superfine, we cannot at any rate complain that the stuff is not worth the embroidery. Not to mention his Plato and those essays on the Renaissance which years ago left their mark on æsthetic criticism, and captivated such stylists as Robert Louis Stevenson, the 'Marius' was in some respects a unique conception and achievement. We may call it a pagan 'Pilgrim's Progress'—a true history of the wandering of a human soul, none the less veracious because it was in part an autobiography, the story of a modern spirit moving in an ancient world. The experience it recorded with such delicacy of introspection and observation appealed, from its character and its setting, only to the few; but it was none the less genuine and important as a human document. The setting itself was equally unique in its combination of vivid creative imagination with entirely adequate and scientific learning. Such pictures as the visit of Marius to the temple of Æsculapius, or the sketch of the Dorian training at Laconia, show all the truer and more brilliant when contrasted with the vagueness or pedantry of the ordinary classical novel. Compared with these magic images from Faust's mirror, the Uardas, Iones, and Glaucuses move like the marionettes of a puppet-show. In all this careful work, in the cultivation of these rare gifts of thought and expression, Mr. Pater's weakness as well as his strength lay in a lifelong search for perfection. The search for perfection, in spite of the certainty that it is not to be attained in this world, was the aim of his labors—or, as he himself has said in his own manner, "the maintenance of a kind of candid discontent in the face of the highest achievement."

WALKER'S MAKING OF THE NATION.

The Making of the Nation, 1783-1817. By Francis A. Walker. Scribners. 1895.

THIS book follows works by Prof. Fisher and Prof. Sloane, in a series of four, which is to be completed in one by Prof. Burgess on the sixty years following 1817. From President Walker's position and known ability something valuable was to be expected; yet his pronounced views on the currency question excited a tremor on first opening his pages. It is eminently satisfactory to be able to say that no such visions intervene to injure the tone of this book, in every way worthy of a scholar, a teacher, and a publicist.

Of late more space has been given by historians to the first generation after the adoption of the Constitution, which their precursors had neglected. This manual, which by its size deprecates comparison with the histories of Adams and McMaster, yields to no book yet published for suggestiveness and penetration. The first chapter handles with fresh touches the old themes of the weakness of the Confederation; the load of National and State debt; the striking inferiority of the Congressional delegates at the close of the war to those at its commencement, and the distrust everywhere existing in the minds of the less prosperous part of the population towards the wealthier citizens. President Walker handles Shays's rebellion with a tenderness not surprising in a child of the Connecticut Valley, brought up in the traditions of the old rural Democracy of Massachusetts, that never loved the Boston Federalists and Whigs. His account of the Constitutional Convention is good; but in remarking on Washington's services as chairman, he might have mentioned Nathaniel Gorham, regularly called to the chair when the convention was in committee, the father of western New York, and altogether a more important figure in the country then than our histories generally indicate. Touching the proposition that representation in the Senate should be based on wealth, he asks his reader to "try to imagine any one daring to make such a proposition now." There is no need of the proposition; wealth now sits in the Senate directly, and not by representation.

In discussing the true theory of the States and the Union, Gen. Walker speaks of the extreme views of Jay and Patrick Henry as each worthy of lawyers, while an intermediate view, expressed in the words of Gerry, that "we were neither one nation nor different nations," appears to him more statesmanlike. This idea, that Chief Justice Jay, in Chisholm vs. Georgia, took the national view with too much of the lawyer's temper, is curiously inconsistent with an opinion expressed later on, that Jay was hardly enough of a lawyer for the great place of Chief Justice. It is, however, much easier to call that very great man either too much or not enough of a lawyer, than to refute the argument which President Walker quotes, that the colonies did not form State governments till they had asked and received the advice of the Continental Congress, and that the Independence of the United States was declared when only three had State governments at all. But President Walker decides that there was no real nation made in either 1776, 1783, or 1789; that the making went on for a generation longer, the new Western States being integral factors, and that the nation woke up to find itself really made at Monroe's inauguration in 1817. The formation of the new Constitution, and the tacit abolition of the Confederation, he thinks quite revolutionary, not legitimately growing out of any previous organism; and he is greatly troubled, as many others have been, at what might, could, would, or should have happened if North Carolina and Rhode Island had not ratified. Of course, it is for divine Providence alone to say why Rhode Island has been permitted, ever since 1640, to do things no other community ever did before or ever will want to do again; it is merely her destined way of falling into line, and the only thing is to be patient with her and not worry. Then follows a recapitulation, in a sort of *oratio obliqua*, of the Constitution itself; this seems unnecessary. It is useful in any history to print the Constitution word for word in an appendix, but the present plan too vividly recalls Justice Story's explanations—*i. e.*, literal restatements of the articles, much like the explanations of mathematical tutors in Harvard's elder day.

The ever-thrilling story of the adoption of the Constitution is well retold; and a very interesting fact, generally overlooked, is mentioned, that the old Tories, as a whole, favored the new scheme. It is not brought out clearly that Virginia ratified supposing herself to be the ninth and not the tenth State, and that Hamilton, to whom President Walker is hardly as just as he tries to be, shut his eyes to very tempting prospects, if he had been willing to be a pure New Yorker, and take his State, as he might, out of the Union. Those who declare that the vote of New York is necessary to elect a President should be reminded that at the first Presidential election she cast no electoral votes at all.

The author's tribute to Washington is dignified and just. He brings out the universal admiration he excited among his European contemporaries, and profoundly adds, "It is not American partiality which exalts the name of

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Washington." In a brief review of the population and resources of the country in 1789, he indicates in a striking manner that nothing has contributed so much to the development of America as the inborn inventive genius, quoting from an English writer, "The American invents as the Greek carved, as the Venetian painted, as the modern Italian sings." If this is not a wholly new observation, it is here drawn out and illustrated by the President of a great school of mechanics as he has the duty and right to do. In his spirited account of Washington's administration, we are told that the wrath of the ultra-republicans blazed forth at the idea of the President's likeness on the coin, and insisted on an emblematic head of Liberty. Washington's difficulty in securing an efficient Cabinet is well told. That the Cabinet officers obviously considered themselves as occupying an independent position before Congress and the country is clearly made out; and indeed it was not till the removal of the deposits under Jackson that the theory of their absolute subordination to the President was established. President Walker expresses grave doubts if their admission to the floor of Congress would prove as effective a measure as its friends believe. Endeavoring to do justice to the genius of Hamilton, he still indicates a deep distrust of his political probity; but he takes more than one opportunity to speak in strong and deserved eulogy of the high character and priceless service of John Adams, a man who will stand higher in the estimation of his countrymen in exact proportion to the study that is given to his life.

The admission of new States, beginning with Vermont, leads the author into some excellent remarks on our Western sisters; the great help they have lent in the consolidation, or, as he will have it, the making of the nation, accompanied at the same time by many difficult and trying qualities, especially their financial unsoundness, which he regards as merely incident to a crude state of society, and sure to be outgrown. His account of the break-up of the Federalists and establishment of Jeffersonian Democracy is good and temperate; and his review of Jefferson's administration shows only too clearly what Mr Henry Adams's history had made plain before—that President Jefferson's patriotism and probity can undoubtedly be vindicated, but only at the expense of his good sense and judgment. It is truly painful to see many of our Southern members of Congress at this day thinking they offer conclusive proof of the soundness of any views when they find some warrant for them in the writings of Jefferson.

The narrative of the Louisiana Purchase and the constitutional questions it raised, and of the commercial and diplomatic quarrels with England and France, is extremely well done. When the war of 1812 is reached, though we have a correct summary, there is no attempt at any picturesqueness of campaign narratives. This is well. The country has been deluged, and in very late years especially, with pictures of martial strife on land and sea, and these have aided in fanning the rising flame of Jingoism and the Old World notion, worthy of Prussian octogenarians, utterly unworthy of Americans in middle life, that war is a good thing. It is obvious that President Walker has the honorable ambition to be the historian of peace, and he deserves that unstained crown. He is not afraid to vindicate the unselfish patriotism of the Hartford Conveners, while severely criticising some of their proposals and even the existence of the Convention; and he discusses with impartial but lively analysis the treaty of 1814 and the tariff act of 1816.

As is natural in one of President Walker's former occupation, he has much to say of the early censuses of the country, and the significance of the statistics then ascertained; and his book is provided with useful tables, maps, bibliography, and index. Without agreeing with all of his views, and perhaps with those he most cherishes, we cannot hesitate to commend this book as marked by a pure and lively style, a sound but chastened patriotism, and a recognition at once scholarly and practical of that transcendent idea, the "commonwealth of nations."

PREHISTORIC MAN IN NORTH AMERICA.

Vorgeschichte Nordamerikas im Gebiet der Vereinigten Staaten. Von Dr. Emil Schmidt in Leipzig. Braunschweig: Fr. Vieweg & Sohn. 1894. 8vo, pp. 216. Map and illustrations.

THE earliest attempts to estimate the period of the advent of man in America were made by Louis Agassiz from Lake Monroe in Florida, and by the physician Bennett Dowler from the delta of the Mississippi. The course of the Mississippi, however, is too irregular to permit observations made at one point of its delta to prove much for any other portion. As for the fragment of a human pelvis discovered in the clay-beds near Natchez, Miss., these strata of loess were caused by rain-floods, winds, and other atmospheric agencies, and hence can no longer be considered as sedimentary deposits. Dr. C. C. Abbott's investigations of the Trenton gravels are conceded by Dr. Schmidt (p. 27) to put beyond reasonable doubt the existence of diluvial man on the middle Delaware River; but his description of the deposits in which man's handiwork was found is too vague to identify with accuracy the special quaternary formation to which they belong. Gass's elephant pipes and other discoveries Dr. Schmidt refuses to take seriously. The Carson footprints were for a while the subject of fanciful speculation, but are now, in consequence of Prof. Marsh's argumentation, believed to be the tracks of a gigantic sloth. The distance of the two rows of foot prints from each other, or width of track, amounts to eighteen or nineteen inches, precluding the idea that man was in any way concerned in making them, though it would fit the elephant's gait as well as the sloth's. The discovery of the celebrated Calaveras skull in 1866, near Altarville, California, was attended with great doubts as to the remote age claimed for it. This relic was found in volcanic tufa 130 feet below the surface, and hence was certainly not of recent origin. The voluminous report which Prof. Whitney, then director of the State Geological Survey, made on this subject contains all the necessary data as to provenance, nature, and age. The skull bore a hard and solid incrustation of the rock material composing the stratum in which it was found—viz., calcareous tufa, rolling lava-stones, and ferruginous earth, together with fragments of human bones. Schmidt is emphatic in asserting the excessive old age of this remarkable find, though he makes no special mention of Whitney's report.

Copper mining in its prehistoric bearing is treated with care and described with minute details by our author, who has visited in person the greatest copper-bearing region in the world, the shores and environs of Lake Superior. It may be said that copper occupies in America the place of bronze in Europe, for it is found in almost every part of the western continent, with more frequency as Lake Superior is approached. Bronze articles are found only in Mexico, Central America, and northern South America. The process of making copper tools properly belongs to the American stone period, for in their manufacture they differ in no wise from stone implements, both having been obtained by hammering, since copper tools are made almost entirely of pure and unmixed metal. Hence a copper period does not properly exist in America; smelting and casting of metals was unknown, nor can certain kinds of relief lines observed on copper implements be explained as junctures of the casting-mould. No American tribe was familiar with the process of soldering, although silver, the ubiquitous metal, would have furnished an excellent means for this process. The opinion of Farquharson, that all American copper implements were intended for ornament only, is controverted by Dr. Schmidt. Collectors and museum curators find it difficult to classify all American copper objects, and they can be named only analogically, as chisels, buttons, stars, etc.

Of all the archæological remains on this continent none has excited more profoundly the curiosity of the educated classes than the mounds which exist in all possible forms, but which in no instance include stone walls. A large number of them served as defences against enemies and bear a strong resemblance to the settlements of the historic and modern Indians, which were either palisaded or surrounded with earthworks. In the Iroquois country there are as many annular forts as squares. Ohio is most thickly dotted with mounds and forts, as may be seen on Prof. Cyrus Thomas's map. Thomas makes out eight or nine districts east of the Rocky Mountains which are clearly distinct from each other in their mounds and graves, as the district of the Cherokees, the Shawnees, etc., but this division has been questioned. Flat-topped conical mounds are certainly characteristic of the southern belt of mounds. Buildings and fortifications stood upon their top, and west of the Mississippi they are found north as far as Wisconsin. Effigy mounds are found only in southern Wisconsin, in northern Illinois, in a corner of Iowa, amid plenty of other mounds. Their limit coincides almost exactly with that of the territory formerly held by the Winnebago Indians.

As a general result of mound researches, Dr. Schmidt holds that there never was a *special* race or people of mound-builders; that the mounds were thrown up by different sedentary Indian tribes of the same lineage as the Indians now living; that the plains along the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers were thickly settled by a population living by agriculture, and acquainted with the arts of pottery, weaving, and rough sculpturing of stones. The garden-beds of Wisconsin and Michigan prove an industrious culture of maize and other vegetables, but no monuments of stone architecture can be traced. The extent of the mound-covered region is large, though the Atlantic coast and the higher slopes of the Rocky Mountains contain almost none of these primitive memorials, many of which were simply burial-mounds. The growth of trees may serve in estimating the age of mounds, accumulations near mining-pits, sepulchral tumuli, etc., but is by no means a safe guide. Trees may have been enclosed within mound walls and be much older than these; and again we cannot absolutely depend on the number of rings.

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In sketching the migrations and warfare of the Eastern nations, Dr. Schmidt largely upholds the views of Albert Gallatin and Horatio Hale, who tried to discover how much of real history there is in their legends. The Cherokees are evidently a branch of the Huron-Iroquois stock in race and language; they are said to have come from the lower St. Lawrence River, and, after having crossed at Sault Sainte Marie, to have gradually passed into their later seats in the Alleghany Mountains, while constantly fighting the enemies who were attacking them. It is almost certain that their ancestors were the builders of the numerous groups of mounds in Ohio. A deep-seated enmity existed between them and the cognate Iroquois of New York State, which lasted down to the end of the eighteenth century. They are believed to be identical with the legendary Talega or Talligewi, whose contests form a part of the curious, half-rhythmical Delaware record called 'Walam Olum.' Schmidt thinks their name is another form of Tsa'lagi ("Cherokee"), but it is more probably an adjectival form of the Delaware adverb talli, *over yonder*, which would permit us to interpret Talligewi as *those on the other side* of some large river or of the Alleghany range. In regard to the filiation of languages in these tribes, Schmidt adopts in every particular what Hale says, that Huron is the most archaic of the group, and, when the Iroquois was differentiated, the Mohawk and the Tuscarora retained the oldest forms. It is probably more accurate to say that, of the eastern group, Mohawk, Oneida, Cayuga, and Tuscarora are archaic in their phonetics, and that the "most changed" sounds are found in Onondaga and Seneca. From the Mohawks, as the "oldest confederates around the Iroquois council-fire," the other tribes emanated or were derived in the order of their settlement, from east to west, south of Lake Ontario. But their earlier seats must have been north of Lakes Erie and Ontario, and the Tuscaroras of North Carolina are reported to have separated from them when staying on the Oswego River.

"The Algonkin tribes originated south of Hudson's Bay, and from there spread out in various directions. The tribes speaking the more primitive languages phonetically live north of the Lakes and the St. Lawrence River, the Crees standing at the head of them. Of those that have gone south of that line, the Shawnees have retained more archaisms than the Illinois and Delaware Indians."

Suppositions of this kind are not improbable, but they do not account for the position of the New England dialects, nor do they explain the wanderings of the Blackfeet, Cheyennes, and Arapahoes to the Far West, for these tribes speak Algonkin languages also.

The Tutelo people were rediscovered by Hale in 1870 in the Canadian Iroquois reservation of Brantford. He was surprised to find that their sparse remnants were speaking a Siouan and not an Iroquois language. This ethnographic discovery bore abundant fruits, for, though Dr. Schmidt does not mention the fact, the investigators of the Bureau of Ethnology have since followed the hint and discovered that the Saponi of North Carolina, the Catawbas of South Carolina, and the Biloxis of Louisiana are also offshoots of the same distant Siouan stock. This entirely reverses our former ideas as to the migrations of the Siouan nations, and proves that they originally dwelt, like the Iroquois, to the east, and not, as they do now, to the west of the Mississippi River. The Ohio valley may have been their ancient domain.

Many of the Chactaw-Maskoki tribes continue to believe in the legendary story that they migrated into their later domain from Mexico and the countries west of the Mississippi River. But other legends of theirs tell them that their ancestors emerged from mounds, caves, and earth-holes in Mississippi and Alabama, which quite contradicts the first-mentioned belief. We know that populations speaking Chactaw, Creek, and Hitchiti lived in these Gulf States in Hernando de Soto's time (1540), and certainly much earlier. No country west of the Mississippi River can be proved to have been their ancient home, through its geographic names, through history, or anything else. Schmidt is doubtful about any such migration (p. 174).

Dr. Schmidt's work closes with some judicious remarks on the architectural and other remains in the dry regions of the Southwest. The more curious of these are the houses, walls, "palaces," and other structures erected in almost inaccessible places in the cañons or on steep slopes. We congratulate our well-equipped author on escaping the natural pitfalls of one writing of a strange country which he has not extensively traversed.

Life of Adam Smith. By John Rae. Macmillan & Co. 1895.

It is now more than a hundred years since Adam Smith died, and more than a hundred years, too, since Dugald Stewart read his memoir of Smith's life before the Royal Society of Edinburgh, although it was not until 1810 that this memoir was published as a separate work. As Mr. Rae says, it has hitherto remained the fullest account extant of the life of the great economist, but during the interval since its publication there has been a gradual accumulation of letters and reminiscences by and concerning Smith, which, in view of the continued vitality of his influence, deserve preservation. Some unpublished letters and some additional particulars have also been disclosed by Mr. Rae, chiefly through inquiries at Glasgow and Edinburgh; but the total additions to our knowledge are, after all, not very extensive nor very important.

In point of fact, the personality of Smith is unavoidably overshadowed by his achievements. These achievements are the product of scholarship, of reason, and of common sense. Undoubtedly no one—except believers in protection, whom Smith hated with perfect hatred and denounced with positive violence—can read the 'Wealth of Nations' without receiving the impression that the author was a virtuous and amiable man. It is evident, also, that the author was a remarkably sensible and well-informed man. But, like his good friends Hume and Gibbon, Smith was too thorough-going a rationalist to be especially interesting. Economists have long cherished the story of his strong language toward Dr. Johnson when that worthy called him a liar; but Mr. Rae throws doubt upon the whole episode, and thus deprives his hero of his only redeeming weakness. So far as we know, Smith never lost his temper upon any other occasion, and never deviated in the slightest degree from the path of rectitude. His character was of the kind to make the task of the eulogist easy, and to enable the epitaph-writer to indulge in the rare luxury of combining truth and praise in the same inscription. Mr. Rae has discovered some faint intimation of a love affair in Smith's earlier years, but his mother seems to have absorbed whatever affection he had to give to the female sex. He devoted himself to her, and as she lived to be ninety, he was not absent from her side many years of his life. His benevolence was extreme, manifested openly when necessary, exercised secretly whenever practicable. His abilities were restrained by his modesty; and after writing one of the most influential books that have ever appeared, he died regretting that he had done so little.

The great achievement of Adam Smith we conceive to have been the preparation of a manual of the art of government. His services to the science of political economy are very great, but it is not upon their account that he is so famous. It is because he was the first to offer to the ministers of parliamentary government a practical system of action. Up to his time, it might almost be said, legislators were without guidance in their task. Statutes were passed in the most haphazard way, and their results were frequently very different from what was expected. But Smith put in the hands of those who were responsible for the course of government a talisman which was sufficient to keep them from serious blundering, if not to lead them to success. Thus his book became the corner-stone of parliamentary statesmanship, and we do not hesitate to say that if it had been accorded in the schools of our country the place which it deserved, we should have avoided many disastrous blunders in the past, and might escape some to which we are doomed in the future. In spite of all the attacks made upon the theory of government which Smith professed, it remains true that no other theory has been reduced to a practical system, and that deviations from his theory continue to result in the very mischiefs that he described.

Mr. Rae does not attempt to give any estimate of Smith's work. He confines himself to tracing his life from year to year with the aid of the rather scanty materials which are available, and he succeeds in making a readable but not a very interesting book. Smith himself, according to Boswell, used to say to his class at Glasgow that there was nothing too frivolous to be learned about a great man, and that, for his own part, he was always glad to know that Milton wore latchets to his shoes and not buckles. Following this maxim, Mr. Rae has very cleverly interspersed narrative with anecdote, and though he is obliged to confess that many of the stories about Smith are apocryphal, he is able to demonstrate the inherent probability of others. Upon the whole, we think that Mr. Rae has performed a difficult task with a good degree of success. He cannot be said to have reanimated his subject, and brought him before us as a living and speaking man. The outlines of the portrait are faint and the colors are dim. But students of economics and of the art of government will be glad to have all the relics of their great teacher collected and arranged with the respectful care shown by Mr. Rae. We must say, however, that we cannot but regard it as an unpardonable omission in a book of this kind that it should contain no portrait of its subject, especially as several are available.

Collected Papers on Some Controverted Questions of Geology. By Joseph Prestwich, D.C.L. (Oxon.), F.R.S., etc. Macmillan & Co. 1895. 8vo, pp. x, 279.

In the first stage of its development the science of geology passed through a period of controversy, during which the causes of the phenomena it is concerned with were debated with an acrimony and an ignorance of the

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facts that may be compared to the disputations of the mediæval philosophers. Towards the latter part of the last century the futility of these debates became so evident that the students of the Earth abandoned that method of inquiry, and betook themselves to deciphering the records of the rocks. A hundred years of such labor has resulted in the accumulation of a very great store of well-recorded observations. Incidentally this body of knowledge has, from mere grouping of the details, thrown much light on the series of actions in and on this sphere; but all the while there has been springing up a series of problems which must be discussed in a broad way, and with the expectation that the best solution that can be attained will be supported not by distinct proof, but by the balance of probabilities. Prof. Prestwich has in this volume of collected and extended papers made a very interesting contribution to the debates which are for a while to occupy the attention of geologists. In the six essays thus brought together we find a very fair opening for the controversy over some of the questions which most immediately demand a general theoretical discussion. These are as follows: the uniformity of geological action; the date, duration, and conditions of the glacial period; the age and succession of human races; the cause of volcanic action; the constitution of the earth's crust, and the internal heat of the sphere.

In his first essay, concerning the Position of Geology, the author states his objection to the hypothesis that the rate of geological change has been anything like uniform in the successive ages of the earth. In this he is in accord with the greater number of his scientific associates. Some of them, however, would object to his statement of the matter, for the reason that he does not explicitly recognize the danger, so well shown in the ancient history of geology, which is incurred whenever we begin to imagine another order or rate of action than that which we now behold in the various realms of the earth. Although the world of to-day is perhaps not a perfectly fair sample of the ancient world, it is a better ground for our inquiries than any hypothetical sphere could possibly be. The safe middle way is to start with and hold fast to the presumption that what we see to be now going on in and upon the earth, is a fair sample of the work done in earlier times. When the proof is clear that in any ancient period the processes were other than those we behold, or the rate of action different, then, and not till then, and only to the strict limitations of the need, should we abandon the principle of uniformity which has led geology from a maze of speculation to the firm ground of science.

In his second chapter, on the Glacial Periods and the Antiquity of Man, our author protests against the hypothesis of Dr. Croll which seeks to explain by astronomical causes the climatic conditions that led to the extension of the ice-fields. The protest is general, and is limited to destructive criticism; there is no suggestion of another view and no sufficiently arrayed proof to show that the last glacial period was, as seemed upon evidence not adduced by the author, less ancient than Croll's view requires us to believe. A large part of this essay is taken up with an interesting, but incidental, inquiry as to the length of time it may have required for the continental glaciers to accomplish their extension and retreat. This does not touch on the main points which we need to know, namely, how long the ice caps were maintained at or near their maximum development. The author repeatedly states his belief that the glacial period was a time of very extreme cold. This view seems distinctly against the probabilities of the case. To bring about another such ice time, we should have to provide for a great increase in the supply of snow; this would require a larger amount of evaporation, in regions near to the glaciated area; moreover, the gain in precipitation would, most likely, be accompanied by a certain augmentation of temperature, in the realm where the fall took place, through the conversion of latent into sensible heat, as the process of condensation went on. The question is very complicated; but whoever will consider the fact that the coldest areas of the world, those in which the soil is locked in frost to the depth of hundreds of feet, are quite without glaciers, will be driven to question the hypothesis that the last ice epoch was due to extreme frigidity.

In the chapter on the Flint Implements of the plateau district of Kent, the author deals with a very puzzling set of facts which have of late interested geologists and archæologists. In the English field, as in the Trenton district of New Jersey, chipped stones, in evident semblance of primitive art-work, plentifully occur in deposits which were probably deposited during the glacial age. It is not easy to account for the introduction of these chipped stones at a later time than that in which the beds themselves were laid down; it is even more difficult to suppose that they were conveyed to their present sites by the ice. Although some of the specimens figured by Dr. Prestwich are clearly the product of art, it is not unlikely that in this, as in other cases, the collections which have been made from glacial deposits are to a certain extent composed of stones naturally fractured. Those who have been close students of drift materials have generally had occasion to remark how the shearing action of glacial motion sometimes leads to a fracturing of pebbles, or even of considerable boulders, in a manner which suggests art-work. This action, for evident reasons, is particularly apt to occur in those varieties of stone which are especially suited for making implements. It is not improbable that the conditions above mentioned have led to some part of the obscurity in which these inquiries have become involved.

In the chapter on the Agency of Water in Volcanic Eruptions, the author sets himself against the modern view that the explosive actions are due to the effect of a superheated water contained in the liquid rock. He contends, with much ingenuity, for the hypothesis that the water which plays so important a part in most outbreaks is derived from the surface, and that it meets the ascending column of lava in the base of the cone. Unfortunately, he does not take into full account the geographical distribution of volcanic vents. Their uniform limitation to the sea-floor, or to the shore-lands neighboring thereto, is a most important fact. This distribution is explicable on the hypothesis that volcanic action is due to the tension of water-vapor brought about by the upward movement of the planes of equal earth-heat in water-bearing rocks. This movement normally occurs beneath the areas of sedimentation, and is apparently sufficient to give rise to the volcanic tensions.

In discussing the Thickness of the Earth's Crust, we do not find that the author has made a notable contribution to the question as to how we are to reconcile the dictum of the physicists concerning the essential rigidity of this sphere with the abundant evidence that the strata warp with the utmost freedom, and that the continents sway up and down in a manner which enforces the idea that the superficial part of the earth rests on a foundation that behaves as if it were molten. The truth is probably to be found in a better conception of the terms fluid and solid. A body may be as rigid as wrought iron, and yet, under sufficiently great stresses, be made to flow. It is not unlikely that the strains which operate in the so-called crust of the earth are great enough to bring about, in materials which are as rigid as our firmest rocks, all the movements required to account for their deformation.

The volume ends with a chapter on underground temperatures, which is an admirable contribution of a very detailed sort to the question as to the rate of increase of heat as we descend below the surface. The list of observations is twice as great as any that has heretofore been given, and the criticism of the data better directed than in the previous essays on the subject. Eliminating the untrustworthy observations, by far the greater part of the list, the author comes to the conclusion that the date of increase may be safely taken at about one degree Fahrenheit for each fifty feet of descent.

Dr. Prestwich's contribution will excellently well serve the purpose which has led to its publication; it will excite controversy in fields where debate is much needed and in which the matter is ready for the argument. The book unhappily lacks an index. There are sundry minor slips, as, for instance, where the name of Baron Sartorius von Waltershausen is twice cited as Wattershausen. According to tradition, this worthy geologist originally bore the name of Schneider; one stage upward was taken by Latinizing the plebeian cognomen; a second, by the addition of the baronial name. If quoted in brief, the name should be Sartorius.

Evolution and Effort, and their Relation to Religion and Politics. By Edmond Kelly, M.A., F.G.S. D. Appleton & Co. 1895.

Mr. Kelly's book is related to so many topics of current interest that, were its treatment of these topics less effective than it is, it would challenge wide attention. His range reminds us of Bishop Berkeley's famous treatise on tar-water, which, beginning with his wonderful specific, ended with an exposition of the Holy Trinity; but he inverts the Bishop's order, and, beginning far away in the mysteries of organic evolution, he ends with the concrete of New York municipal politics—a kind of tar which some have touched incautiously and therewith been defiled. He tells us in his preface that his book was practically completed before the reanimating results of the New York elections of 1893 (meaning 1894). Evidently the preface was completed before the exanimating results of those elections had declared themselves as they have now, when it appears that the rushing stream of our enthusiasm for reform has largely been diverted to turn the private mills that manufacture predetermined spoils.

The main purpose of Mr. Kelly's book is a good one, namely, to encourage us to believe that if we are the bosses' underlings, the fault is not in our stars, but in ourselves—not in the stress of evolution, but in our lack of effort in opposing this. And so it happens that he ranges himself with Huxley in his courageous battle with the universe, as planned in his Romanes Lecture, and against the determinism of Spencer, the social selection of Weismann and Kidd. All this is instructive as showing that what is one man's meat is another's poison. A great many people have found Huxley's doc-

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trine of man against the universe exceedingly depressing, but here is one whom it exhilarates, and what he writes of the ideal man is an exact picture of himself: "He appears as a combatant, instinct with vigor and life, defiantly pitting himself against the very forces of Nature to which Spencer tends to regard him as hopelessly subjected." He appears to us to overrate the practical effects resulting from determinism or the opposite conclusion. Mr. Spencer is certainly as little inclined to *laissez faire* as Prof. Huxley in his general attitude towards social wrongs and miseries, while they both uphold the Manchester political economy, and Mr. Kelly, who is on the right side of every practical question, is heartily with them. John Stuart Mill was a very earnest necessarian; but he never bated a jot on this account from his hostility to any concrete evil of his time.

As Mr. Kelly proceeds with his discussion, it becomes more practical. Under the head of "Church and State," he has some very good observations on the disposition of clergymen to "keep out of politics," but we are inclined to think that when he speaks of those with whom "abstention from politics has grown to be a sort of virtue," he is thinking overmuch of a particular church, and more of its past history than of its present status. In view of the courage which political outspokenness requires in a clergyman under the voluntary system, the wonder is, perhaps, that so many stoutly refuse to hold their peace. Mr. Kelly's contention is that, while partisan politics are so divisive that few clergymen can be expected to take part in them, there is a wide field of political interests which can be cultivated by clergymen with the happiest anticipations. This is, indeed, the final outcome of his book, and if the particular forms of organization which he suggests do not commend themselves to his readers, there is much in the spirit of his argument that is deserving of the carefullest consideration.

"Municipal Misgovernment" is the title of a chapter that contains much admirable matter. So far as New York is concerned, the advocacy of separate municipal elections is, of course, a *post-eventum* prophecy, but this point is only one of many. Coming to "The Problem of Pauperism," Mr. Kelly has a good word for indeterminate penal sentences and for the Elmira system, and elaborates a scheme of willing and unwilling pauper colonies which is, perhaps, not too Utopian to be within the bounds of possibility. Such a scheme is manifestly socialistic; but in a chapter dealing with socialism Mr. Kelly manifests a temper very different from that of Bellamy's 'Looking Backward' and Morris's 'News from Nowhere.' He develops the policy of the Fabian Society at full length, and, less expansively, that of the People's party; and, if his comments are more sympathetic than are warranted by the one programme or the other, he is again upon the firmest ground when, with Sir Fitz James Stephen and Prof. D. G. Ritchie, he falls back on the political philosophy of Burke—that every case is to be taken on its own merits. If the socialistic programme is good, and the means proposed for its realization are adequate, and its contingent evils will not outweigh its benefits, the sooner it is realized the better.

A Short Comparative Grammar of English and German, as traced back to their common origin and contrasted with the classical languages. By Victor Henry, Deputy-Professor of Comparative Philology in the University of Paris, etc. Translated by the author. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1894.

THE French edition of this work was published in November, 1893, and the preface to this English edition is dated May 1, 1894. That such a work was needed will be conceded by every scholar, and that it has been well done must be acknowledged by every one who has read it through carefully from beginning to end. The several parts treat successively of sounds, words, declension, and conjugation; and that the study of phonetics is made the basis of the whole is shown by the fact that the first topic occupies fully one-third of the volume, and the bulk of each other division. It is an application of the modern method of the study of comparative grammar to English and German, and, as the author says, "is intended to introduce the comparative method to students who already have some knowledge of both the English and German languages." While the work is ostensibly limited to "the comparative study of modern English and German," the author hopes "that for some students it may also serve as a primer of the earlier languages." Since, in our judgment, it is impossible to apply the comparative method intelligently to English and German without making use of the historical method also—without comparing the forms of Old English and Old High German—we find the author perfectly right in introducing these forms; in fact, the chief criticism that an English student would make of the work is that Old English forms have been sometimes omitted because they were lost in modern English, in cases where they would illustrate further the points discussed. It seems to us, however, a mistake to suppose that a student will gain from this text-book sufficient grammatical knowledge to enable him to translate, with a glossary, "such easy texts as may be found in an elementary chrestomathy of Middle English or Middle High German, of Old English or Old High German, or even of Low German or Gothic." These languages must be learned for themselves, and then the student will be better able to apply to them the comparative method so well delineated by Prof. Henry.

It would require more space than we can afford to criticise this grammar even cursorily from a philological point of view. The author defends in the preface his use of the term "metaphony," but we think it would have been better to use throughout the German term *umlaut*, which has been completely naturalized in English, or the English term "mutation," which Mr. Sweet and Prof. Skeat have been trying to naturalize for this process. So, too, *ablaut* seems better than "gradation" or "apophony." Another minor criticism is that where the terms "voiceless" and "voiced" have been deliberately used, it is not worth while to go back to "hard" and "soft"; the use of terms should be consistent. On p. 10 (1006) is a misprint for (1016); so, p. 34, is O. E. *lygen* for *lyge;* on p. 37, note, (Saxonic) and (Anglic) should exchange places; p. 87, O. E. *scyffan* stands for *scyppan*, better *scieppan*. On p. 174 the patronymic use of *-ing*, so common in the A.-S. Chronicle, is overlooked. P. 200, "Shake-speare" was parodied as "shake-scene" only by Greene in his well-known reference, hence "sometimes" is out of place. P. 268, "in them days" is scarcely "a trace of the old dative"; it is simply illiterate. P. 294, while the past participle *rode* was in use in the last century, it is now obsolete. P. 300, second note, *thresh* is not merely "a rural form," but is better English than *thrash*, which is now colloquial. Pp. 357-8, some O. E. forms, from which modern forms survive, are omitted, as O. E. *wiste*, Biblical *wist;* O. E. *witan*, legal formula *to wit;* O. E. *gewiss*, M. E. *iwis*, modern *I wis*, from mistaken analogy. P. 361, O. E. *āhte*, ought, is classed by grammarians (cf. Sievers) as "Type A," from its present *āh*, and so should not be entered as "unclassed"; O. E. pres. *ah* =owe, is omitted. P. 368, the modern distinction in the use of *shall* and *will* as auxiliaries is not noticed.

All told, we have found very little to suggest by way of correction, and can commend most heartily this excellent work to all *Fachgenossen*. The author himself says (pp. 375-6): "For practical purposes these scientific results may have but little value. . . . But the scientific mind, which likes to penetrate into the reason of things, will derive both profit and pleasure from being able to trace in the history and evolution of a language the reasons for its most minute and often apparently contradictory rules."

Catherine II. et la Révolution Française. Par Ch. de Larivière. 8vo, pp. xxxiii, 391. Paris: W. Le Soudier; New York: Brentano's. 1895.

THIS is the first of four volumes that are to appear successively on Catherine the Great, based upon her correspondence—a mass of letters in course of publication by the Imperial Russian Historical Society. The first volumes of this collection were issued a little more than twenty years ago, and the earliest letters of Catherine's were written on her accession to the throne in 1762, so that the wish she expressed to Grimm that her "pancartes" should not be made known to the world for at least a hundred years was exactly granted. That M. de Larivière is fully competent to deal with this material is vouched for by M. Alfred Rambaud (and there could be no better endorser), who assures the reader that "the book is based on the most complete and the most accurate information. No document of any importance, whether published in Russia or in France, has escaped the observation of the author; Russian collections almost inaccessible to the French public have been laid under contribution; and, finally, the author has sought in our own archives the solution of problems that no printed work could throw light upon."

"Fortunate the historian," exclaimed Voltaire, "who shall write a century hence the history of Catherine II.!" M. de Larivière does not present himself as that personage. His work is not a history of "Catherine *le Grand*," as she liked to be styled, but studies of her as the ruler of Russia, as a woman (or man) of letters, and in the other relations of her life where again she was both woman and man. The present volume treats of the attitude Catherine maintained during the great Revolutionary crisis. The friend of the Encyclopædists became the irreconcilable opponent of the Revolution. A "liberal" in 1767, she was in 1789 an extreme "réactionnaire." In one part of her life she was governed by opinions entirely different from those that possessed her afterwards, and it has been our author's object to show the stages of this curious evolution. He especially notes the judgments she expressed regarding the French Revolution, and points out the manner in which she combated it, even when her action is the most obscure. The Czarina could not be blind to the *universal* character of the Revolution,

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to the fact that, as M. Albert Sorel has said, it menaced all established powers, and invited all nations to revolt and freedom. During the revolutionary period, selfishness and rapacity were dominant in Europe, and nowhere more so than in the brain of that sovereign who was most successful in exciting discord among her neighbors and benefiting herself by their jealousies. Towards the end of her life she said one day to Choiseul-Gouffier: "I have sailed my little boat as well as I could." She sailed it extremely well, and it was not so small a boat either, for more than once it carried the destinies of Europe. But never was there a more striking instance of the power of the winds of Fate, for, to quote M. Sorel again, "if no one contributed more than Catherine to form the coalition against republican France, no one contributed more to dissolve it, and thus, involuntarily and unwittingly, she rendered an immense service to that Revolution she execrated and whose ruin she longed for."

The acts of the Empress define her character, but in her letters may be found the "why" of her acts. The matters that occupied her thoughts are constantly noted in her correspondence, carefully and often sincerely, and with a quality of imagination in the expression flowing directly from that vital force that made her conquests of every kind so numerous, and which, guided by a rare strength of will and still rarer personal energy, enabled her to give unrivalled brilliancy to the position she occupied, and to raise the Slav power to undreamed-of heights.

Poets on Poets. By Mrs. Richard Strachey. London: Kegan Paul; New York: Scribner.

"An English poet," wrote Butler, with his usual wit—

> "An English poet should be tried by his peers,
> And not by pedants and philosophers."

The verdicts of juries thus constituted are what Mrs. Richard Strachey has undertaken to record in her 'Poets on Poets.' She has done her work well. It is impossible to open her charming volume at random without hitting upon verses that one will care to read. Most of the best-known passages in which English poets judge their fellows are included, and not a few besides that only students are familiar with. There are all varieties of expression—elegy, compliment, flattery, calm appreciation, rhapsody, satire; but the prevailing tone is commendatory. Indeed, if the book has a fault, it is perhaps this of protesting too much. Not that the poets have always been good-natured; it is rather Mrs. Strachey's good nature that has produced this harmony. She intentionally omits personal satire—"whatever is concerned with the man alone and not the writer." This is probably a wise principle of exclusion, but we doubt if it is always wisely applied. Pope's portrait of Atticus, for instance, is excluded on this ground, though surely it concerns itself with the writer as well as with the man. There is more reason for leaving out Churchill's sketch of Dr. Johnson as Pomposo. We sadly miss Dryden's Elegy on Oldham. No doubt this was omitted as being praise of the man rather than criticism of his poetry, but the critical significance of the piece is clear enough. Drayton's "Epistle to Henry Reynolds" is, we are glad to see, printed without abridgment. Many persons who are not ill-read will owe to Mrs. Strachey their first acquaintance with this delightful poem.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, Ethan. Washington; or the Revolution. A Drama. F. T. Neely.
Bruce, M. W. Alaska, its History and Resources. Seattle: Lowman & Hanford.
Clodd, Edward. The Story of "Primitive" Man. Appletons. 40 cents.
D'Arcy, Ella. Monochromes. London: John Lane; Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Harland, Henry. Gray Roses. London: John Lane; Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
MacColl, Rev. Malcolm. England's Responsibility towards Armenia. Longmans, Green & Co. 75 cents.
Marshall, Luther. Thomas Boobig. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Needell, Mrs. J. H. The Vengeance of James Vansittart. Appletons.
Oliphant, Mrs. Two Strangers. R. F. Fenno & Co.
Phillpotts, Eden. A Deal with the Devil. F. Warne & Co. $1.
Poole, Fanny H. R. A Bank of Violets. Putnams. $1.25.
Roberts, Gen. Lord. The Rise of Wellington. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Seymour, H. W. Government & Co., Limited. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 75 cents.
Schlessing, A. Deutscher Wortschatz, oder der Passende Ausdruck. Zweite verbesserte und vermehrte Auflage. Stuttgart: Paul Ness; New York: Westermann.
Shores, Herman. The Keys of Fate. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Tufts, W. W. A Market for an Impulse. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Upward, Allen. The Prince of Balkistan. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.
Van Loan, Walter. Catskill Mountain Guide. Rogers & Sherwood Printing Co. '40 cents.
Warren, T. R. Juliette Irving and the Jesuit. New Brunswick, N. J.: J. Heidingsfeld.
Warr, Prof. G. C. W. The Greek Epic. London: Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge; New York: E. & J. B. Young.
Wines, F. H. Punishment and Reformation. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.75.
Yeats, S. L. The Widow Lamport. R. F. Fenno & Co.
Zangwill, I. Children of the Ghetto. Macmillan.

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